## *MEMOIRS OF MR. WOLLASTON.*

*With a Head of that celebrated Writer, finely engraved.*

WILLIAM WOLLASTON was born March 26, 1659, at Coton Clanford, in Staffordſhire, where his father then reſided, a private gentleman of a ſmall fortune, being deſcended from an ancient and conſiderable family in that county, where the elder branch always continued: but the ſecond, in proceſs of time, was tranſplanted into other counties. However, the head of it flouriſhed formerly at Oncot, in the county of Stafford, though of late years at Shenton, in Leiceſterſhire; and was poſſeſſed of a large eſtate lying in thoſe and other counties. Our author was a ſecond ſon of a third ſon of a ſecond ſon of a ſecond ſon, yet notwithſtanding this ſeries of younger brothers, which however, is a very remarkable inſtance, his grandfather, who ſtands in the middle of it, had had a conſiderable eſtate both real and perſonal, together with an office of 700l per annum. And from a younger brother of the ſame branch ſprung ſir John Wollaſton, lord-mayor of London, well known in that city at the time of the civil wars.

At nine years old, Mr. Wollaſton was ſent to a maſter, who had opened a Latin ſchool, at Shenſton in Staffordſhire, where his father then reſided. Here our author continued near two years, and having received ſuch inſtruction as that perſon was capable of giving him, he was removed to Litchfield. He had been at this ſchool but a ſhort time, when the magiſtrates of the city, upon ſome quarrel, turned the maſter out of the ſchool-houſe. However, Mr. Wollaſton, with many of the ſcholars, followed the ejected maſter, and remained with him till he quitted his ſchool, which was about three years, after which, the ſchiſm being ended, he returned into the free-ſchool, and continued there about a year. The rudeneſs of a great ſchool was particularly diſagreeable to his natural diſpoſition; and what was ſtill worſe, he began now to be much troubled with the head-ach, which ſeems to have been conſtitutional in him: yet his uncommon attention to his book, and eagerneſs to improve, had now rendered him fit for the univerſity. Accordingly, he was ſent to Cambridge, and admitted a penſioner at Sidney college, June 8, 1674, in the ſixteenth year of his age. Here he was ſo circumſtanced as to labour under curious diſadvantages. He was come up a country lad from a country ſchool; had no acquaintance in his college, nor even in the univerſity; few books or materials to work with; his allowance being by no means more than ſufficient for bare neceſſaries; neither had he ſufficient confidence to ſupply that defect by enquiring from others. Add to this, that his ſtate of health was not quite firm. However, under all theſe diſadvantages, he acquired a great degree of reputation, and having taken his degree of Bachelor of Arts at the regular time, he offered himſelf a candidate for a fellowſhip in his college, but miſſed of that preferment. July 1681, he commenced Maſter of Arts, and about this time ſeems to have entered into deacon's orders.

On Michaelmas day following, he left the univerſity, and having made a viſit to the then head of this branch of the family, his couſin Wollaſton of Shenſton in Leiceſterſhire, he went to pay his duty to his father and mother, at Bloxwyche, where they now lived: and not having ſeen them for many years before, he ſtaid with them till May or June 1682. But ſeeing no proſpect of preferment, he ſo far conformed himſelf to the circumſtances of his family, as about this time to become aſſiſtant at Birmingham ſchool to the head-maſter, who readily embraced the opportunity of ſuch a co-adjutor, and conſidered Mr. Wollaſton as one, who prudentially ſtooped to

an employ beyond what he might reaſonably have pretended to. However, this inſtance of his humble induſtry was far from being diſpleaſing to his couſin of Shenton, who had a great eſteem for the head maſter, and in a ſhort time, he got a ſmall lecture at the diſtance of about two miles from Birmingham; but as he performed there the whole Sunday's duty, that fatigue, added to the buſineſs of a great free ſchool for about four years, began to break his conſtitution. But the old maſter being now turned out, in order to make way for a particular perſon to ſucceed him, our author was choſen ſecond maſter only, under a pretence that he was too young to be at the head of ſo great a ſchool, but ſome of the governors themſelves owned that he was not well uſed in this affair.

However that may be, it is certain, upon this occaſion he took prieſt's orders in purſuance to the charter of that ſchool, which being interpreted likewiſe ſo as to oblige the maſters to take no church-preferment, he reſigned his lecture. This happened in the year 1686, and was a conſiderable eaſement to him. This new poſt was worth about 70l *per annum*, which afforded him a tolerable competent ſubſiſtence. In the mean time the late chief maſter after his expulſion retired to his brother's houſe, which lying in the neighbourhood of Shenton, he once or twice waited upon Mr. Wollaſton, of Shenton, and undoubtedly informed him of the character, learning, converſation, and conduct of our author, which he was very capable of doing, becauſe they lived together till the time of this old gentleman's leaving Birmingham. Mr. Wollaſton, of Shenton, having now lately loſt his only ſon, and never intending (as appears from his whole conduct) to give his eſtate to his daughters, purſued his father's deſign of continuing it in the male line of his family, and reſolved to ſettle it upon our author's uncle and father, his own firſt couſins, and his neareſt male-relations, in the ſame proportions and manner exactly as it had been entailed on them by his father. And accordingly he made ſuch a ſettlement, ſubject however to a revocation.

Our author all this while applied himſelf to his buſineſs; and never ſo much as waited upon his couſin, or employed any one to ſpeak or act any thing in his behalf (though many then blamed him for neglecting to do it) only one viſit he made him in the November before his death, which was upon a Saturday in the afternoon. He gave him a ſermon the next day, received his hearty thanks, and the next morning deſired leave to return to the duties of his ſtation; without ſpeaking or even inſinuating any thing reſpecting his eſtate. His couſin diſmiſſed him with great kindneſs; and by his looks and manner ſeemed to have a particular regard for him, but diſcovered nothing of his intention by words. However, he uſed to employ perſons privately to obſerve our author's behaviour, (who little ſuſpected any ſuch matter) and his behaviour was found to be ſuch, that the ſtricter the obſervations were upon it, the more they turned to his advantage. In fine, Mr. Wollaſton, of Shenton, became ſo thoroughly ſatisfied of our author's merit, that he revoked the forementioned ſettlement, and made a will in his favour. In Auguſt following, that gentleman fell ſick, and ſending ſecretly to our author to come over to him, as of his own accord, without any notice of his illneſs, he complied with the meſſage, and ſtaid ſome days at Shenton. But while he was gone home, under a promiſe of returning, his couſin died, Auguſt 19, 1688.

By his relation's will, Mr. Wollaſton found himſelf intitled to a very ample eſtate, but this change, ſudden and advantageous as it was to his affairs, wrought no change in his temper. The ſame firmneſs of mind, which had ſupported him under the preſſures of a more adverſe fortune, enabled him to bear his proſperity

with moderation; and his religion and philoſophy taught him to maintain a due equanimity under either extreme. In November following he came to London, and about a year after, on the 26th of that month 1689, he married miſs Catherine Charlton, daughter of Mr. Nicholas Charlton, an eminent citizen of London, a fine woman with a good fortune, and a moſt excellent character. With this lady he ſettled in Charter-houſe ſquare, in a private, retired, and ſtudious life. His carriage was nevertheleſs free and open. He aimed at ſolid and real content, rather than ſhow and grandeur, and manifeſted his diſlike of power and dignity, by refuſing one of the higheſt preferments in the church, when it was offered to him.

He had now books and leiſure, and he was reſolved to make uſe of them. He was perfectly acquainted with the elementary parts of learning, and with the learned languages, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, &c. He thought it neceſſary to add to theſe ſuch a degree of philology and criticiſm as ſeemed likely to be uſeful to him: and alſo mathematical ſciences, or at leaſt the fundamentals of them; the general philoſophy of nature: the hiſtory and antiquities of the more known and noted ſtates and kingdoms; and in order to attain the knowledge of true religion, and the diſcovery of truth, the points which he always had particularly in view, and to which he chiefly directed all his ſtudies, he diligently enquired into the idolatries of the heathens; and made himſelf maſter of the ſentiments, rites, and learning of the Jews; the hiſtory of the firſt ſettlement of Chriſtianity, and the opinions and practices introduced into it ſince. In the mean time he exerciſed and improved his mind by throwing off prejudices, uſing himſelf to clear images, obſerving the influence and extent of axioms, the nature and force of conſequences, and the method of inveſtigating truth. In general, he accuſtomed himſelf to much thinking as well as much reading. He likewiſe delighted in method and regularity: and choſe to have his labours and refreſhments periodical, and that his family and friends ſhould obſerve the proper ſeaſons of their revolution. He was moſt remarkably cheerful and lively in converſation, and by that as ready, as by his treaſures of learning, he was abundantly qualified, to be ſerviceable to all ſorts of people. This rendered his company agreeable, and himſelf worthy to be courted by the learned and virtuous. But a general acquaintance was what he never cultivated, and it grew (as is generally the caſe) more and more his averſion, ſo that he paſſed his days moſtly at home, with a few friends, with whom he could enjoy an agreeable relaxation of mind, and receive all the advantages of a ſincere and open friendſhip.

Having thus fixed his reſolution to deſerve honours, but not to wear them, it was not long before he publiſhed a piece entitled, 'The Deſign of Part of the Book of Eccleſiaſtics, or the Unreaſonableneſs of Man's reſtleſs Contentions for the preſent Enjoyments, repreſented in an Engliſh poem, in 8vo.' But as he had never made poetry his ſtudy, he was very ſenſible of the defects of this attempt, and was afterward very deſirous to ſuppreſs it. This poem was printed in the year 1690. Notwithſtanding he declined to accept of any public employment, yet his ſtudies were deſigned to be of public uſe, and his ſolitude was far from being employed in vain and trifling amuſements, terminating in himſelf alone. But neither in this laſt view, could his retirement be without ſome inconveniences.

His intimates were dropping off, and their places remained unſupplied: his own infirmities were increaſing: the frequent remiſſion of ſtudy, growing more and more neceſſary; and his ſolitude at the ſame time becoming leſs and leſs pleaſant and agreeable. But what decays ſoever he felt in his bodily ſtrength, it is certain nevertheleſs, that the clearneſs and per-

ſpicuity of his thoughts continued in full vigour. However, perceiving his deſigns fruſtrated by the daily attacks of nature, and that it would be impoſſible to finiſh and complete them in the manner he wiſhed, he ſeems to have intended to deſtroy with his own hand the greateſt part of his works; and that thoſe few manuſcripts, which were found after his death, were indebted to the treachery of his memory for their preſervation. For he had within the laſt two or three years of his life, actually burnt ſeveral treatiſes, in the compoſition whereof he had beſtowed no ſmall quantity of time and pains. In the year 1720, he had the misfortune to loſe his wife, who died on the 21ſt of July, in that year. They had lived extremely happy in each other, and he was much afflicted with the loſs. He buried her in the ſame grave, where he himſelf then intended to be, and was afterward, laid; and wrote an inſcription upon her monument, wherein he has perpetuated her fame.

In 1722, he printed a few copies of his celebrated treatiſe entitled 'The Religion of Nature Delineated.' He had not then completed his whole deſign, thoſe copies being only intended for private uſe in the proſecution of it. Accordingly he ſoon after began to turn his thoughts to the third queſtion, recited in the entrance of that treatiſe, but in this deſign he had opportunity to make but a ſmall progreſs. He was himſelf not without apprehenſions, that he ſhould not live to finiſh it; and about Midſummer 1723, he was prevailed upon by the inſtances and perſuaſions of his friends, to ſet about reviſing and publiſhing what he had done of the work, which contained an anſwer to the two firſt of the propoſed queſtions; reſolving, as ſoon as that ſhould be done, to return to and finiſh his anſwer to the third queſtion. But in this he was diſappointed; for immediately after he had completed the reviſal and publication of the treatiſe as it appeared in 1724, in 4to, an accident of breaking his arm increaſed his diſtemper, and haſtened his death, which happened October 29, the ſame year. His body was carried down to Great Finborough, and laid cloſe by the ſide of his deceaſed wife, according to his own deſire.

We are aſſured that the picture of his life is moſt fully drawn in the 'Religion of Nature Delineated,' that there we may behold him in his real character, in the humble ſubmiſſion and reſignation of himſelf to the unerring will of the Divine Being; in his true conjugal and paternal affection to his family; in his kind regard and benevolence toward his fellow-creatures, according to their reſpective ſtations in life. For he himſelf ſteadily practiſed thoſe duties and obligations, which he ſo earneſtly recommended to others. Accordingly, his lateſt moments were calm and eaſy, ſuch as might be expected to cloſe a life ſpent like his. He left the world, as he ſojourned in it, quietly and reſignedly. Both the manner of his life, and that of his death, are celebrated as examples.

The great demand for his book (of which more than ten thouſand were ſold in a few years) and the public honours paid to the memory of the author, are ſufficient teſtimonies of its value. Yet it has not eſcaped the criticiſm of the celebrated biſhop Warburton, although approved by Dr. Conyers Middleton, and Bolingbroke ranks him among Theiſts. The fact was, Bolingbroke was quick-ſighted enough, to perceive that Mr. Wollaſton's method of demonſtrating the religion of nature, clearly paves the way for the religion of grace, which it was his lordſhip's open purpoſe to diſcredit. It may be added, that 'The Religion of Nature,' &c. is one of the beſt written books in our language. It had uſually been printed in 4to; the ſeventh edition was printed in 1750, in 8vo, to which are added, an account of the author, and alſo a tranſlation of the notes into Engliſh. There is prefixed an ad-

vertiſement by Dr. John Clarke, late dean of Saliſbury, which informs us, that this work was in great eſteem with her late majeſty, queen Caroline, who commanded him to tranſlate the notes into Engliſh for her own uſe.

Mr. Woliaſton had by his wife eleven children, of whom four died in his life-time. The eldeſt ſon, who ſucceeded to the eſtate, was ſome years member of parliament for Ipſwich.

## *THEATRICO-MANIA.*

### An Essay on the Rage for private Theatrical Exhibitions.

[From 'Senilities,' a Work juſt publiſhed by the ingenious and venerable Author of 'The Reveries of Solitude,' 'Spiritual Quixote,' &c.]

Time was, a ſober Engliſhman would knock
His ſervants up, and riſe by five o'clock:
Inſtruct his family in *Virtue's* rule;
And ſend his wife to church, his ſon to ſchool.
Now times are chang'd—
Sons, ſires and grandſires, all will wear the bays,
Our wives read Milton, and our daughters plays.

POPE'S EPISTLES.

THUS it was in Pope's time; and thus far was not much amiſs: though their daughters *read* plays, we do not find that they attempted to *act* them. But in our times, not only our daughters, but our wives, our mothers and our grandmothers, I do not ſay *read*, but *act* plays. And we may ſay in a literal ſenſe, what Shakſpeare's melancholy Jaques ſays in a figurative one:

'All the world's a ſtage,
And all the men and women merely players:'

There is hardly a family in high or low life, that has not its theatre of ſome kind or other, and its occaſional performers. Not only Brandenburgh-houſe, but many a noble houſe of leſs notoriety is frequently opened for theſe dramatic exhibitions. Thither you ſee aſſembled animals of every deſcription, like thoſe in Noah's ark, clean and unclean; pure and *impure*; grave and gay, gamblers and grumblers; who diſſatisfied with themſelves and every thing around them, take refuge here, driven from home through dread of ſolitude, and that green eyed monſter *Ennui*.

If their magnificent feats in the country be the ſcene of action, which ſome few of our nobility and gentry ſtill prefer to a dirty lodging at Brighton or Margate; or, at leaſt, when driven from the metropolis by the duſt in ſummer, and from the ſea-ports by the equinoctial rains in autumn; they contrive to ſupport themſelves for a month or two, by giving their rural retreat ſome reſemblance of a public place; and collecting a crowd of half civilized ſavages from the ſurrounding neighbourhood, to ſee the raree-ſhow, and applaud their performances.

Hence the humour has ſpread itſelf among their tenants and daughters; who, in imitation of their right honourable or right worſhipful neighbours, ſpout heroics in their barns, with as much vehemence, though not always with ſo much correctneſs * of elocution, as their landlords have done 'in *hall* or *bower*.'

As for the practice ſo much in vogue

* A friend of mine was preſent at one of theſe Theſpian exhibitions, when a young ſwain thus addreſſed a recruiting ſerjeant; '*Sur*, I *undurſtand* you have lately made a a campag—ne,' &c.

of late in our public ſchools of performing *Engliſh* plays, I know not what to ſay. It is countenanced by perſons of ſo much ſenſe and reſpectability, and on ſuch plauſible arguments, that I ſhould think it the height of preſumption abſolutely to condemn it.

'As moſt boys, who have a claſſical education, ſay they, are intended to *ſpeak* either at the bar or in the pulpit, or perhaps in the ſenate houſe, they cannot be too ſoon habituated to ſpeak in public. It gives them a proper confidence and an unembaraſſed elocution. A man will never excell as an orator, (ſomebody has obſerved, who does not conſider his audience as ſo many cabbage ſtems.'

This is very true: but let them, therefore, be accuſtomed to repeat with a proper emphaſis and in a graceful manner, ſome parts of the orations of Cicero, or ſpeeches in Salluſt, or even the debates of our Britiſh ſenators: or if you pleaſe, ſome paſſages from our beſt tragedies, or from the Latin or Engliſh poets, with appropriate geſtures and ſome degree of *action*. But I do not ſee any good it can anſwer, to make a boy a mimic or a buffoon. Every man ſhould be a good ſpeaker, but why muſt every man be a good actor?

Yet Roſcius, you will ſay, was Cicero's maſter in *action*, as well as in ſpeaking. *Action*, no doubt, was of great ſervice to a pleader in popular aſſemblies, ſuch as thoſe of Rome and Athens. Yet the natural modeſty and good ſenſe of an Engliſh audience can never be pleaſed with any violent geſticulations. And the mob, who are ſo much captivated by the harangues of the Tabernacle, are affected more by the appearance of the preacher's being in earneſt, than by his thumping the cuſhion and his vociferation. And if the London clergy of the eſtabliſhment would add a little more vehemence to their compoſed and decent attitudes, I am convinced that they would have more hearers and more admirers.

But there is no objection to thoſe dramatic repreſentations in grammer ſchools, which perhaps may be peculiarly ſo to me, that ſome of the boys muſt neceſſarily be metamorphoſed, for the time, into the other ſex. And though I have been rather pleaſed with the partiality of a fond mother, delighted to ſee what a handſome girl her booby ſon would make, it is to me a diſguſting ſight.

Not to mention, that the applauſe which they are ſure to receive from, perhaps, an intereſted audience, muſt naturally excite their youthful vanity, and make them coxcombs. And I have known more than one inſtance where, when a boy had performed his part to *admiration*, he has flattered himſelf that his education was finiſhed, and has become idle and diſſipated ever after.

An equally ſerious conſequence of theſe performances in great ſchools, of which we ſee many inſtances, is the encouraging young lads, intended for more creditable employments, in commencing ſtrollers, and making it their profeſſion, to the diſappointment of their parents, and the perverſion and miſapplication of talents, which might have been employed for more uſeful purpoſes.

But ſo fond are we of every thing theatrical, that our young ladies of rank, inſtead of the graceful movements of the minuet or the louvre, in which the grandmothers appeared to ſo much advantage, are now taught to emulate the dancers of the ſtage; and, what is worſe, it is to be feared, their *inſtructreſſes* in theſe dances will introduce, not only the faſcinating attitudes and looſe drapery, but the voluptuous morals of the French nation.

As for the general effect which thoſe *private* theatrical exhibitions may have in forming the character and influencing the conduct of the riſing generation, I ſhall only obſerve, that whatever moral precepts our modern dramatic writers may inculcate; yet, as the green-rooms of our public theatres

were never reckoned ſchools of rigid virtue; ſo, I am afraid, the *private* apartments in noblemen's and gentlemen's houſes, where the young people retire to change their dreſſes and the like, have been productive of more than one intrigue, and elopements, and improper marriages, to the diſtreſs of families, and often, perhaps, the ruin of the thoughtleſs parties themſelves.

This prevailing rage for theatrical repreſentations, ſeems to have taken its riſe from the ſame ſource as faſhions in general; from a natural deſire of imitating what we admire in thoſe who ſhine, or are ſuppoſed to excel in any art, accompliſhment, or natural endowment. Thus a young lady and gentleman are ſtricken with the romantic characters and elegant repreſentations of Romeo and Juliet; or, perhaps, the former with the Fair Penitent, and the latter with the gallant, gay Lothario; and they immediately flatter themſelves that they ſhall reſpectively ſhine, and be admired in the ſame characters.

This fondneſs for imitating what we admire in others, indeed, extends itſelf through almoſt every department of life.

A ſpirited young dowager is pleaſed with the triumphant air and elevated ſituation of her coachman on his box. Immediately ſhe wraps herſelf up in a horſeman's coat, with a ſeven-fold cape, mounts her phaeton, flouriſhes her whip, and

'Graceful as John, ſhe moderates the reins,
And whiſtles ſweet her diuretic ſtrains.'

Another *handſome* woman is ſmitten with the helmet of a young volunteer, and gets her milliner to make her a bonnet, ſomewhat ſimilar to it. This probably has introduced the *univerſal* faſhion of the ſtraw ſcull-cap, reſembling the baſket-hilt of a cudgel-player. But faſhions are like quack-medicines; what becomes one woman may be fatal to the charms of another. As we cannot ſee too much of a pretty woman's face; ſo the leſs is ſeen of a plain woman's the better. The prevalences of faſhion, however, is equally applicable to both ſexes. But as this is a digreſſion from my ſubject, I ſhall only add, that if a man who has been abſent from his country ſeven years, were now to return to England, and to ſee our ladies in their ſcull-caps and pellices, and the gentlemen in their pantaloons, he would think they were dreſſed for a maſquerade; or rather that an epidemic frenzy had infected the whole *beau monde*.

Though I have kept chiefly to the literal ſenſe in this eſſay, I ſhall conclude it with one obvious moral, ſo often inculcated by Epictetus, Antoninus, and other ſtoic philoſophers; 'Remember that you are to act a part in the drama of life, at the will of the manager; whether that of a patrician or a plebeian. *Your* buſineſs is to act the part allotted you to the beſt of your abilities; to allot the part is the buſineſs of the manager.'

Let thoſe candidates for fame then, theſe tragi-comic performers of either ſex, endeavour to *perform* with *propriety* their ſeveral *parts* in the relative duties of life; as ſons and daughters; huſbands and wives; or maſters and miſtreſſes of families. And, inſtead of intruding into, and perhaps injuring the poor player in his profeſſion; and inſtead of 'ſtrutting their hour on the ſtage,' to gain the momentary applauſe of a frivolous audience, let them ſtrive to acquire the conſtant approbation and eſteem of the good and wiſe, who are ſpectators of their conduct. And, above all, of the great maſter of the drama of life, who has allotted them their parts, and is the only competent judge of their performance, and capable of aſſigning them an adequate reward.

## *RURAL FELICITY.*

[ From the SAME. ]

O! Rus, quando ego te aſpiciam? HOR.

THE eaſe and tranquillity, commonly to be found in a country life, and the beauties of nature, there only to be found in their genuine ſimplicity, operate more forcibly on the imagination, and excite ſtronger wiſhes in the breaſt; when, by our ſituation in life, or other circumſtances, we are deprived of them, than when we are in the actual enjoyment of them.

That is ſo true, that I have often thought Milton would not have painted the rural ſcenes in his 'Paradiſe Loſt,' in ſuch glowing colours, if he had not been blind.

'The ſummer's morn, the pleaſant villages and farms'

with the nymphs and ſwains at their rural labours in the field, had made a ſtrong and pleaſing impreſſion on his youthful fancy, which remained fixed there, when the gloom of winter, the rainy ſeaſons, and every thing unpleaſant and diſguſting, was forgotten or loſt in the aſſemblage of more brilliant, and more intereſting ideas.

Hence proceeds that rage for retirement and country-houſes ſo prevalent in many worthy citizens, who, notwithſtanding the greater comforts and conveniencies to be found in an opulent city; yet, amid the hurry of buſineſs, and the claſhing intereſts and competitions of trade, are languiſhing for the calm, undiſturbed repoſe of the country.

But let us attend one of theſe enthuſiaſtic admirers of rural beauty, on a Saturday evening, at his villa or mimic cottage, by the ſide of ſome common or public road; you will find him, inſtead of repoſing under the ſhade of a ſpreading oak, with a book in his hand, or enjoying the cool breezes of the ſummer's evening, you will behold him ſitting with a pipe in his mouth, in his little ſummer-houſe, at the corner of his garden, and reading the Morning Chronicle, or enjoying the proſpect and the duſt raiſed by his fellow-citizens, who with the ſame reſtleſs ſpirit of migration from the city,

——————— 'Run
The Lord knows whither, in their chaiſe and one.' POPE.

The Sunday of this recluſe is a *ſerious comedy*, conſiſting of five acts, breakfaſt, dinner, and ſupper; an afternoon's nap, and a pipe in the evening; and on Monday morning, he returns with equal impatience to the drudgery of his buſineſs, as a refuge from the intolerable burthen of having *nothing to do*.

Men of buſineſs have, undoubtedly, the beſt plea for occaſional intervals of relaxation and repoſe; but as theſe little ſpruce haberdaſhers have probably no reſources in themſelves, either of reading or reflection, to fill up the empty ſpaces inſeparable from a country retirement—Cheapſide or Newgate-ſtreet, is the proper ſphere of their exiſtence.

Addreſſed to this prevailing fondneſs for a country life, an advertiſement appeared in the London papers every ſpring, ſome years ſince, nearly in theſe words: 'Ever ſtudious of rural amuſement, I took a walk as far as the Adam and Eve, on Turnham-green.' And what was the reſult of this rural excurſion? Why; having met with ſome incomparable cheeſecakes, ſome delicious Herefordſhire cyder, and a pipe of the beſt Virginia tobacco; the public-ſpirited gentleman could not, in juſtice to this illuſtrious cake-houſe, withhold his due encomiums, or conceal from his friends ſuch a magazine of good things, which he himſelf had ſo happily diſcovered and enjoyed.

I remember 'a party of pleaſure,' conſiſting of ſome of the moſt reſpectable inhabitants of Bath, (accompanied by a well-known doctor in divinity) who came to ſpend a day at a farm-houſe, which commands one of the moſt delightful proſpects in the environs of that beautiful city. As ſoon as dinner was ended, though in the midſt of July, they ſhut up the parlour-windows, called for candles, and ſat down to cards, till their poſtillion ſent in word that it was almoſt dark, they then hurried down their tea and returned home, entertaining their friends for a week after, with the delightful day they had ſpent in the country.

In the more elevated walks of life, the ſame fancied love of rural retirement, and the ſame inability to ſupport it, too generally, I fear, prevails. Satiated and fatigued, perhaps, with the *daily* (or rather *nightly*) repetition of the ſame ſcenes of folly and diſſipation; or annoyed by the heat and duſt of the metropolis; they fly from town to ſome equally crowded ſea-port, or other place of faſhionable reſort, where they meet the ſame wretched *votaries* of *pleaſure*, purſuing the ſame, or ſimilar modes of ſquandering their time, in queſt of that happineſs which eludes their purſuit: and which mere amuſement, void of utility, can never afford to a thinking mind: or if they vouchſafe to viſit their country ſeats for a month in the autumn, inſtead of exhilarating their country neighbours, or 'making glad,' the hearts of their tenants and dependants, they probably bring down with them their town aſſociates, or ſome of thoſe idle, fungous excreſcences of ſociety, thoſe 'airy nothings, who having no *local habitations*, or hardly a *name*,' are proud to join in the *ſuite* of ſome great man (and even boaſt of the honour) to applaud his taſte and improvements; to praiſe his claret; '*laud the haunch*;' and ſometimes, I fear, *encourage*, if not *ſhare*, his licentious amours.

Thus, too many of our great men, it is to be feared, enjoy the Arcadian ſcenes, which, perhaps, they have formed at a ruinous expence; unconſcious that any other human beings, more worthy, perhaps, than themſelves or their friends, exiſt around them.

Yet I ſhould betray a narrowneſs of obſervation, and a very limited knowledge of the great world, were I to include even a majority of our nobility in this random cenſure. On the contrary, I am perſuaded, that *ſome* of the brighteſt examples of religion and virtue may be found among the higher ranks in this united kingdom; and to whom people in a lower ſphere might look up and copy with advantage.

Marcellus is a young nobleman of high rank and ample fortune. He has had a virtuous and claſſical education in one of our Engliſh univerſities; where he was diſtinguiſhed by a regular application to the ſciences and to polite literature. He is by no means deficient in political knowledge. But as he has nothing to aſk of adminiſtration, he keeps himſelf independent, and engages in no party. Yet, as the oppoſition act ſyſtematically againſt the miniſter, and the buſineſs of government could not be carried on without a majority in parliament, Marcellus thinks it his duty, ſometimes to give his ſuffrage in their favour; and to ſacrifice his own private opinion, when the expediency of a meaſure is only problematical; and though he is not clearly convinced that it is the beſt that could poſſibly be adopted.

When his duty to the public will permit, he gladly embraces every opportunity of retiring to his country reſidence; where, in the ſociety of his amiable and accompliſhed lady and a few friends, he enjoys all the felicity which conjugal affection, and the eaſe and familiarity of friendſhip can ſupply.

Their mornings are dedicated partly to uſeful and amuſing ſtudies, or domeſtic concerns, and partly to exer-

ciſe and taking extenſive rides, and viſiting whatever is curious and intereſting; calling on their genteeler neighbours; or viewing their farms and cottages of the labourers, and enquiring into the ſtate and improvements in the former, or the wants of the latter. The reſt of the day is ſpent in the hoſpitable reception of thoſe, whoſe liberal education, or whoſe ſtations in life, though much inferior to their own, entitles them to ſuch a reception, which the politeneſs and condeſcenſion of this amiable couple extends to the whole neighbourhood, and which muſt reconcile the fierceſt democrat to the ariſtocracy.

As their rank and fortune gives them a powerful influence over their inferiors, they uſe their power in promoting virtue and induſtry among the lower claſſes, and ſubmiſſion to legal authority; which in theſe times is doing eſſential ſervice to the public. In countenancing the ſober and induſtrious, and admoniſhing, and even rebuking the idle and extravagant; relieving indigent merit and unmerited indigence, and the like charitable offices. And in the diſcharge of theſe ſocial and moral duties, they find ſufficient amuſement to enliven their ſummer's retreat, while the conſciouſneſs of right conduct affords them the moſt heartfelt gratification, and diffuſes a cheerfulneſs over their minds, which being free from any irregular or criminal paſſion, leave them open to the enjoyment of the beauties of nature, and the calm unſophiſticated pleaſures of the country.

In ſhort, in theſe rational and benevolent occupations, Marcellus and his lady are ſo far from finding their time a dead weight, or from ſinking into an inſipid littleneſs and becoming a prey to ennui, that they think their ſummer's receſs much too ſhort; and return with reluctance to the buſy ſcenes and tumultuous pleaſures, if ſuch they may be called, which the capital ſupplies to the ambitious, the licentious, or to the giddy votaries, or rather ſlaves, of faſhion.

## *ON CONDESCENSION.*

THE foundation of diſcontent in many ſituations in life, is, a compariſon, in the mind, of the humble ſtation of one with the exalted condition of another. This is its original ſource, which, in the preſent conſtitution of affairs, admits not a remedy. Not ſo the aggravating cauſe of this diſcontent, the pains which proud ſuperiors take to make their inferiors more ſenſible of their inferiority. That is an evil which lies at the door of individuals, and claims their redreſs, by ſmoothing the inequalities of fortune.

If we view the ſubject with a philoſophic eye, there is abundant reaſon for caution againſt arrogance, in the ſlightneſs of that caſualty which has unmeritedly given to many a diſtinguiſhed ſhare in the poſſeſſions and bleſſings of life. By the natural right of mankind, no one can claim a more than equal portion with others, ſo ſay ſome philoſophers, who, however, are not hiſtorians, for no ſuch right ever actually exiſted, or could exiſt above a day. The laws of ſociety have arranged property in its juſt directions, but ſtill without a licence for the favourites of fortune to trample over thoſe who have a leſſer portion.

By the conſtitutions of ſtate, and general conſent, the point of right is fixed and certain. By many, property has been acquired by induſtry and toil. We all agree to preſerve this right; and, in return, expect the protection of the general body to confirm to us what has fallen to our ſeveral ſhares. As members of ſociety, we are under an obligation, virtually equivalent to an oath, not to violate the rules of this diſpenſation; and an infringement of them is pronounced equally criminal with a tranſgreſſion of the ſuppoſed natural obligation.

Such are the different views of human affairs, under the different conſtitutions of nature and ſociety. Notwithſtanding this change, by univerſal concurrence introduced, it can never be deemed the part of a generous mind ſo far to ſtretch an accidental advantage, as wantonly to be the author of unmerited pain to another. In conferring a diſtinction on individuals, ſociety never intended to beſtow a liberty of diſplaying haughtineſs and inſolence. Though ſubordination is an eſtabliſhed law of ſociety, and though the different endeavours of different men are marked by diſtinctions in the favours of fortune, it betrays a want of generoſity, and the impotence of a little mind, in a perſon of elevated ſtation, to triumph over the inferiority of others, as over the arrogance of a defeated foe.

That ſubordination requires and implies diſtinction is without diſpute. State and pomp are properly connected with magiſtracy and authority, as mechanical engines for lifting them above the encroachments and impertinence of the unmannered vulgar. Little minds need ſuch inſtruments of awe: and the lower order of people, particularly of this kingdom, will run riot, even in the preſence of dignity and ſplendor. The more civilized themſelves are ſtruck with the pageantry they behold, and derive from it additional reverence. And where integrity is joined to greatneſs, theſe honours are, in every reſpect, well conferred.

In the private concerns of great men the caſe is in ſome meaſure reverſed. It is not abſolutely neceſſary to transfer all that ſtateline ſs to their own particular intercourſe with their inferiors. It may appear paradoxical, but it is literally true, that fewer airs will ſerve the turn of a nobleman, in private life, than need be aſſumed by a mechanic. His rank alone will extort the reſpect that is paid him, and there is little danger of an encroachment on his due. The mechanic, on the other hand, feels himſelf under the neceſſity of adopting ſome appearances of conſequence, or he would dwindle into nothing, and become a cypher in the world.

Condeſcenſion, when found in company with greatneſs, inſtead of diminiſhing aught from the latter, gives to it an acceſſion of luſtre. Nothing more exalts than humility. This is another paradox, founded in truth, and worthy attention. Affability in a nobleman will purchaſe him more eſteem than his coronet, and not take a jot from his dignity. Reſpect is more cheerfully paid to a humble man than it is to the proud. *Oderint dum metuant*, was the ſaying of a haughty emperor; but it is a maxim that will never be admired by him that is ſtudious of real honour.

Prudence ſuggeſts the advantages reſulting from condeſcenſion. The affected reſpect which is paid to ſtately diſtance is neither ſo ſterling nor ſo glorious as that which is the fruit of humility. Though the laws reſtrain the ſallies of inſolence and inſult toward perſons of rank from their inferiors, no law on earth can produce that genuine reverence which comes from the heart. Chains that bow down the body, are no fetters for the mind, and till that is ſubdued the triumph is incomplete. This is only a conſequence of the moderation with which a great man bears his exalted ſtation, and the ſole honour that redounds to the man, the common homage being yielded only to his rank, and not belonging to his perſon. There is a double glory in enjoying a bleſſing which is the produce of our own endeavours, or merit; and it is not known, till a man is inveſted with honour, whether he deſerves it. If there be an inſuperable deſire of admiration, let the object of it be properly fixed, and the virtues of goodnature, integrity, and condeſcenſion, be ſignalized in queſt of it.

The old obſervation, that inſolence is a foible peculiar to upſtarts, is an inducement that naturally leads to

explode it. Thoſe who have been a long time great, or can count a numerous train of illuſtrious ancestry, are habituated to grandeur; it ſits eaſily on them, and they are not poſſeſſed of the notion of it, as if it were new to them. Pride ſhould conſider this as a mortifying and diſcouraging reflection. The obſervation ſeldom fails of being quoted, when occaſion prompts, and the application of it is familiar to the loweſt capacity, the maxim is ſo univerſally propagated. But the ſame pride that fills a man with an opinion of his own conſequence, rarely deigns to liſten to the promiſed advantages of condeſcenſion.

Vanity and haughtineſs are different, though they ſpring from the ſame ſource. The one is at moſt but a folly, while the other may be conſtrued into a vice. The ſallies of the former will excite only a ſmile, where the exertion of the latter will wound ſenſibility. Vanity is an involuntary giddineſs of the mind, which every one has not firmneſs ſufficient to guard againſt; haughtineſs is an inſolent effort of that vanity, which ripens into action. Vanity will allow another his due; haughtineſs is ſolely occupied in erecting its own conſequence on the ruins of others.

That pride is an indication of a narrow ſoul, is confirmed by the ſame argument that has been uſed on the ſubject of revenge. Thoſe minds which honeſt Juvenal has noticed, as moſt addicted to the latter paſſion, and which he has, without ceremony, called *little minds*, are likewiſe moſt prone to pride, where the judgment is weak, the affections of the mind are ſtrong. The weakeſt eyes are moſt dazzled by the ſplendor of the ſun; the weakeſt minds are moſt intoxicated by pomp and pageantry. But if we cannot help thinking too highly of our dignity, it is impolitic to betray the nothingneſs of our thoughts, and to expoſe ourſelves as the marks for ridicule, hatred, and mortification.

To over-rate our conſequence, and exact more than ordinary ſubmiſſion, proves on many occaſions not only unſucceſsful, but often a ſhameful defeat of our proud intentions, and a ſtinging reverſe. Genuine greatneſs will force men's homage in ſpite of themſelves, without the aid of ſupercilouſneſs. But if men plume themſelves on imaginary conſequence, and then command a gaping tribe to humble themſelves before them, inſtead of receiving a hearty reſpect (which alone is to be prized) they may be amuſed with an appearance of homage, but they will be ſecretly deſpiſed, and made a complete ſport.

That temper is moſt deſirable which, while it has ſenſibility to feel the mortification of inferiority, has, at the ſame time, the equity not to indulge in exultation in its turn. There is ſomething both juſt and generous in ſuch a humour, ſomething deſerving of praiſe from morality, and of commendation from a ſpirit of conſcious dignity.

As long as there is ſuch a baſe principle in nature as ingratitude (and ingratitude, among her various productions will never be extinct) good-nature, on the one part, may, at times, be ſubject to the impertinent mockeries of an inſolent perſon, and on the other to dangers from the artful, as harmleſs flies are the prey of venomous ſpiders. Miſcreants, capable of ſuch ingratitude, were intended for ſlaves, if ſlavery is lawful. To offer an injury unprovoked, is an example of baſeneſs, in every inſtance; but to requite good with evil is diabolical. Notwithſtanding this, it is eaſily diſcernible when condeſcenſion may ſafely diſplay itſelf without becoming a prey. If an inferiors humble himſelf at his patron's feet, it is not the part of greatneſs to trample on his neck, who is already proſtrate; but it is the temper of meanneſs and beggarly arrogance ſo to do.

It is not the idea of this paper, that kings and beggars, noble and ignoble,

ſhould herd in common together, as if there were no diſtinction. This is incompatible with the eſtabliſhed nature of ſubordination; and even with the idea of friendſhip, in a great degree, which is never ſo firmly compacted as when ſubſiſting between equals. Similarity of circumſtances is the moſt proper baſis for harmony; intereſts, views, and notions in ſuch caſe accord with, and cement each other. Experience tells us, that one order of men retreats from the next beneath, in proportion as the latter purſues, ever in chace, like the ſpokes of a wheel, but never overtaking. The great approve not a cloſe connexion with their inferiors from their heart, becauſe they may be loſers, and can hardly gain, from ſuch intercourſe. It is, therefore, wiſeſt to court the alliance of equals, without baniſhing affability from a caſual commerce with inferiors. With reſpect to the latter, nothing can be a better concluſion of the ſubject than a ſtory told of Dr. Johnſon. When he heard that a certain lady was very affable to her inferiors, he obſerved, that 'it might not, perhaps, be eaſy to ſay who *were* her inferiors!'

## *A REMEDY FOR THE PLAGUE.*

[From Baldwin's Political Recollections relative to Egypt.]

THE origin of this diſeaſe is not known: it may have had ſuch an origin as the diſtemper produced in gaols, which is alſo contagious, to ſay: 'Long confinement; deep anguiſh; unwholeſome food.' But the origin of its introduction at particular times in particular places is always to be traced to a parent.

As for example, our preſent plague in Egypt, 1791, was imported from Conſtantinople in a French ſhip called l'Aimable Marie, captain Eſtienne; having ſeveral infected ſlaves on board. Some of them died at Alexandria, and the remainder were tranſported to Cairo. Iſhmael Bey, Sheck Bellad, purchaſed them for Mamaluks. They infeſted his palace, and he fell himſelf a victim to it: from him the contagion ſpread all over Egypt; and from Egypt to Rhodes, and Stanchio, and Scio, and Smyrna, and over all the coaſts of Syria.

The ſame thing is true with reſpect to every plague which I have known of during an acquaintance and intercourſe of one and thirty years with the greateſt part of the Turkiſh dominions.

It is not in the air, as many, otherwiſe, great and learned men have ſuppoſed: nor is it conveyed by ſwarms of inſects generated in ſtagnate waters. No precaution could defend us from it, in thoſe caſes. It is, on the contrary, a conſtant fact, that ſuch as confine themſelves to their houſes, and avoid all contact with infected people, or with things which have been in contact with the infection, are ſure to eſcape it.

It is, therefore, only communicated by contact. I will not ſay abſolute contact, becauſe there may be great danger in aſcertaining the fact: but it is proved, that infected people may be approached within a few yards without danger; but how near I cannot take upon me poſitively and preciſely to ſay.

Let us conſider the character of the plague. What is the plague?

A violent effervescence in the humours of the body; or in the blood; or in the nervous fluids; or in all. I am not tenacious for the preciſe term. The world will know that I am no doctor: but an effervescence which acting with more violence than the conſtitution can bear, proves ſuddenly fatal. In ſtronger conſtitutions, or in weaker conſtitutions, if they will have it ſo, but in ſuch conſtitutions as reſiſt the effervescence, it reſolves into tumours ſtrongly inflamed, and offers a better chance of recovery.

Then, what cauſes effervescences?

All acids, mixed with another ſort of bodies called alkalis, will make a violent effervescence. This, the Dictionary ſays, is the great general criterion of effervescences. Then I conclude the cauſe of the diſorder called the plague muſt be an acid. A malignant acid, if you pleaſe, or a benignant acid; for I fancy that the quantity, or force, of the acid, without any particular property even, might be equally deadly; it depending upon the violence of its action. As in electrical operations, you will find a ſpark, or a ſtream of fluid, benignant; and a ſufficient ſhock of the ſame benignant fluid, deſtructive. The danger may be in the quantity. But let it be malignant in its eſſence, that is not the queſtion: the queſtion is—Is it an acid?

The effect of acids, is inflammation. The plague has this character.

If we conſider acids in their effects on other bodies, they produce inflammation. And what are the predilections of flame? Why, generally ſpeaking, to all oleaginous ſubſtances.

This diſquiſition led me to make an experiment; and in a glaſs I put ſome pure olive-oil, and over it, on the glaſs, at a diſtance of half an inch at leaſt, I put a lemon perfect, and almoſt mature. And in a few hours I had the ſatisfaction to ſee the acid of the lemon trickling down the glaſs, and mixing with the oil; and in about eight days the lemon had almoſt exhauſted itſelf of every drop of its juice. I have always ſucceeded in this experiment, but with great diverſity as to the time, from diverſity of ſeaſon, and quality of the fruit.

I had now an evidence of the predilection of the acid for an oil; and ſo ſtrong a predilection, that it would quit its natural body to intermix itſelf with this ſtranger. Theſe things may be common to profeſſors in chymia: ſo much the better; they will be the readier to approve me. But I have found them only now in the way to my purpoſe.

What remained to be done now, but to try the experiment on the plague itſelf? An opportunity ſoon offered.

My oppoſite neighbour being at his window, looked afflicted: I aſked him what ailed him? He told me that a young man, his relation, in a part of the ſame building he inhabited, was ſtruck with the plague.—'Anoint him with oil,' ſaid I, 'and he will do well.' He had no opinion of the oil, and did nothing. The next day I queſtioned him, 'Well; how is your relation? Have you anointed him?'—'No; he is better!' It was falſe: the man was worſe. The third day in the evening I ſaw him again; he was crying:—'What is the matter with you? is your relation dead?—'No; but he is very ill: he is dying!'—Anoint him with oil,' I ſaid to him again: 'what do you riſk?'—'Oil is heating,' he replied.—'Heating or cooling,' I ſaid, 'would you have the man die? try it.' And he left me, and went and ſaw that his relation was anointed: and the next day the man was free from pain; with a good appetite, and a large tumour in his groin, but perfectly eaſy. I ordered him to humect frequently the tumour with oil; and in eight days it came to ſuppuration, and the man is now walking in the ſtreets. This being promulgated among the neighbours, another infected perſon tried it, and was cured; and then another, and another, to the number of ſeven, whoſe names I poſſeſs, and whoſe bleſſings I enjoy.

Here then are evidences for my principle, which is, 'That the peſtilential humour which cauſeth the diſeaſe called the plague is an acid, and that it will quit the human body to fly to the oil, which it prefers.'

But the evidence of ſeven is too ſmall, in a matter of ſuch conſequence to the world, to obtain an implicit belief. But any evidence at all, in a matter of ſuch conſequence to the world, ought to make us anxious not to loſe it; therefore, I ſay, let more try it. Seven, it may be preſumed, might be recovered without help,

Have not many ſevens recovered? Yes: I give it, that more may be tried. Let my argument ſtand for nothing: but in truth, the only ſeven that did try it recovered: let more try it. If the principle is good, it will prove its virtue; and if not, what riſk is there in the operation, to a man infected with the plague?

There is, however, a ſtrange perverſeneſs in the human character. Many, whoſe friends were in the agonies of death, have been recommended to try it; and they have anſwered, 'What can oil do?' And their friends have died! Others, 'So many great doctors have pronounced the evil beyond their ſkill, and is it now to be cured by oil?' And they too have devoted their friends to the public conceit.

But this is not the only inſtance of mortal diſeaſes being cured by oil: ſhould I ſay, 'Diſeaſes that would have been mortal without it?'

I have tried it on five rats ſtung one by one by a ſcorpion. The firſt ſwelled to a great ſize, and appeared to be near dead. I poured ſome pure oil upon him, and he recovered, and in a few minutes ran away.

But he might have recovered without the oil, as people ſay of my ſeven perſons recovered from the plague.

I put a ſecond to the ſcorpion, and the rat was ſtung; I left him to himſelf, and he died very ſoon. Then I preſumed the former had been cured by the oil.

I tried another, and cured him; and another, and he died; and another, and he was cured.

There was that virtue, therefore, in the oil, or that predilection in the malignant humour which the ſting infuſed, for the oil, as to draw it from the body, and avert the poiſon.

If the plague is abſolutely communicated by contact, or by a ſpark emitted from the body at any diſtance, why may not this contagion be aſſimilated to the puncture of a ſcorpion, or to the ſtinging of a nettle? ſince acids are ſuppoſed to be little pointed bodies, fitted to enter the particles they aſſail. There muſt be ſomething very reſembling in the characters of theſe evils: the poiſon of the ſcorpion, and the malignity of the plague, having ſuch an aſtoniſhing activity in contaminating the whole maſs of the blood, and are almoſt equally deadly in their effects. Then ſhould it ſurpriſe that the ſame remedy ſhould be efficacious in both!

I have applied oil to my foot in fits of the gout, and have appeaſed the pain, and abated the inflammation almoſt inſtantly, without ſuffering a return. It is now ſix years ſince I have uſed it in fits of the gout with never-failing ſucceſs. I have many witneſſes to this truth, and do conſider it as an infallible cure for the gout, as ſoon as it has reſolved itſelf into an inflammation externally.

## *LANDING OF THE BRITISH TROOPS IN EGYPT.*

[ From the SAME. ]

THE orders were given. The men were to be in the boats by two o'clock in the morning of the 8th (March 1801); and upon the ſignal of a rocket fired into the air from the admiral's ſhip, the whole were to be put off toward the ſhore.

The rendezvous was appointed to be within the armed veſſels ſtationed to cover the landing; and here the boats were to form, and take their order for proceeding to the ſhore.

The poſition of this rendezvous relatively to the coaſt, or ſite appointed for the general diſembarkation, may be deſcribed to be within the arch of a circle, whoſe baſe, on a line (of about three miles in length) drawn from one extremity to the other, would be about a mile from the ſhore.

Within the line repreſenting the baſe, were ſtationed the ſhips of war and bomb veſſels deſtined to cover the landing. The Monſlovi, commanded

by captain Stewart, was the centre ſhip of theſe; and here did I aſk leave to be, to look at this eventful ſcene.

The rocket was fired, and the boats put off from the ſhips. I ſoon after got into my boat, and on my way came up with and paſſed the whole diviſion of the army in about one hundred and fifty boats, and numbering nearly ſix thouſand men.

You will have anticipated my reflections upon this ſcene. The ſilence of the night, and the ſolemnity of the buſineſs, paſſing along a ſpace of ſix miles toward the ſhore, and amid this foreſt of ſhips, will naturally diſpoſe one to many of thoſe ſerious reflections, on the wonderful caſt and compoſition of men; which, particularly at an hour ſo full of doom to thouſands of us, will irreſiſtibly intrude upon, and poſſeſs the mind.

You ſee me in a boat, enveloped by the ſable mantle of the night, ſhrugged up to keep the cold from me; my eyes turned up to the rich beſpangled heaven of Egypt, ſeeing the wonderful hand of the Creator in every orb; his omnipotence preſent to my mind; nothing heard in this ſolemnity, but the diſmal murmur of oars, thouſands of oars dipping in the ſea, pulling eager and haſty to deſtruction! And that I ſhould be among them, amid this tumult of war! reluctant to war, and ruſhing among the foremoſt into the horrors of it! unaccountable deſtiny of man!

Ah! but ambition muſt have bounds! If ambition were to have no bounds, ambition would overawe the world! Then who ſhall check ambition but the ſons of freedom? But who ſhall be worthy of freedom, but the virtuous? But who ſhall ſpurn at the impertinence of Gallic pride, but Engliſhmen? Then come on!—To work!

At about daylight, the whole diviſion were arrived at the rendezvous; and here they were employed arranging their military requiſites until eight. It appeared, to our impatience, long. The French poſition, as to extent and appearance, I have delineated; but fortified as it was, and defended by four thouſand men, it might have reſiſted the world. I wiſh that I had talent to deſcribe it to you; for having ſeen the diſplay of its effects upon the landing, from ſo near and central a ſituation, I ought to be able to impreſs you with a proper idea of its force. The commander in chief ſaw it; but he viewed it with as much calm as the oppoſition ſeemed to be ſtern and difficult to ſurmount: and there, where there ſeemed to be moſt ſtrength, there did he determine to make his attack. I have been told, that it is the characteriſtic feature of his military life always ſo to do: and he did it—and he did well!

The hour for moving forward at length come; the whole diviſion was immediately in motion: the right wing under the fire of the caſtle of Aboukir; the centre, under a ſand-hill near ſixty yards high, in the front and centre of the French poſition; and the left wing on the right of the French, leading from the principal ſand-hill to a low point terminating at the entrance of the Aboukir lake. The ſpaces, from the extremities of the French poſition to the commanding hill in the centre, were interſperſed with inferior ſand-hills; and in the intervals between theſe ſand-hills were ſtationed infantry and artillery innumerable, to annoy us. All this ſcheme of fortification appeared to refer its bearings to the great ſand-hill in the centre, which, beſide the cannon which were mounted on it to defend it, was on account of the natural difficulty in aſcending a yielding ſoil, deemed inacceſſible.

Under this amphitheatre of hills and hillocks, forming gradations which may be compared to the ſeats in thoſe amazing ſtructures, and on which cannon at frequent diſtances all around were placed, as well as men to annoy us, did our brave army advance. Not a Frenchman was to be ſeen; not in any array, nor on the beach; but by

ſtealth from their concealments. Our flat boats, with about fifty men in each, were preceded by armed launches, to check the fire of the enemy; but they ſuffered our boats unmoleſted to advance, until the whole diviſion was within the arch of the circle already deſcribed; then opened ſuch a hail-ſtorm of ſhot and ſhells of all dimenſions, from within the whole circumference of this arch, from front and flanks; ſuch a hail-ſtorm, I ſay (for whoever ſaw the effects of a moſt dreadful hail-ſtorm upon the water, can alone conceive an idea of it), of ſhot and ſhells upon our boats, as nothing but the intermediate hand of Providence could ſave from total ſubmerſion.

Let a man figure to himſelf the effect of a ſingle ſhell ſtriking the water near a boat, and the columns of water it daſhes into the air before it, and then repreſent to himſelf the millions of theſe ſhot and ſhells, falling all around and among our army of boats, in quantity like hail; then be aſſured that only one of this ocean of boats was materially hurt by the percuſſion of a ſhell; and that none were ſubmerſed by the inundation of water upon them; and then let him ſay, if any thing but the intermediate hand of Providence could have ſaved them.

And let him conſider, that under this ſtorm, which is only conſidered as to its real effects; under this inceſſant ſtorm of ſhot and ſhells, and grape and miſſile of every denomination, filling the air with cloud, and ſulphur, and fire, and thunder, and ſmoke, and all the horrors of damnation fulminating about them, did our brave army advance: yes! advance! But how advance? Cooped up in boats like ſheep; their hands acroſs upon their breaſts; inactive, not inſenſible of the dreadful lot to which every man was helpleſsly expoſed; ſtill undaunted, undauntedly advance; and intrepid and impatient, gain at length the ſhore.

There was, however, a moment in this proceeding like a pauſe, a very awful moment; it was the moment which coſt major Ogle his life. I ſaw it from the poop of the Mondovi; and from the painful feeling it gave me, I felt myſelf ſhrinking from the horror of the ſcene: it was that point when

—— Gone ſo deep in gore,
As dangerous to retreat as wade quite o'er.

I could not conceive the reaſon of this pauſe. I was trembling at the precipice which it preſented to our affairs; when obſerving the beach, I fancied that I ſaw ſome of our men on ſhore: I was ſeized with a convulſion of joy; I ſhouted—They are on ſhore! huzza, my boys, they are on ſhore! And all our ſhip's company huzzaed; and ſo the next; and ſo the boats: it had the effect of wildfire; it caught like an electric ſhock; the whole army ſhouted—huzza! huzza! huzza! huzza! and on ſhore they went.

On landing, the enemy poured down in torrents to the beach; they even ruſhed into the ſea, and killed our men in the boats; but our brave fellows were not to be overcome. They formed ſteadily as they kept jumping on ſhore, and fought under this diſadvantage like lions. They were charged by a body of cavalry; they broke this charge, and receiving continual ſuccours from the boats, they forced the enemy to give ground.

It was at this moment of time that our right had gained the hill; for although there muſt be ſome diſtance in the deſcription, there was very little in the time of the actions. The French troops perceived it; and, ſenſible of the check they were under by this event, were forced immediately to think of a retreat.

Not more than two thouſand of our men were on ſhore, when they forced the enemy to give ground: but every ſtep was fought; was gained. And, at length, a victory (which will give a character to our army for conſtancy, reſolution, ardour, intrepidity, and valour, never to be obliterated) crowned their brow with honour.

## *DEATH OF SIR RALPH ABERCROMBY.*

[From the Same.]

AS he left me to go toward the cannonading, he muſt have rode ſtraight among the enemy already broke into the rear of our front; and as it was not yet day, not being able to diſtinguiſh friend from foe, he undoubtedly had the misfortune to get embarraſſed among them. But he was extricated by the valour of his own troops. To the firſt ſoldier who came up to him, he ſaid, 'Soldier, if you know me, don't name me.' He was reſcued; and at this moment a French dragoon, conceiving the prize he had loſt, rode up to the general amid his own guard, made a cut at him, and not being quite near enough, juſt cut through the coat and waiſtcoat, and ſhirt, and with the point of his ſabre only grazed the ſkin. At the ſame moment the dragoon's horſe wheeling about, he brought him to the charge again, and made a ſecond attempt by a lunge; but the ſabre paſſed between the general's ſide and his right arm, which he inſtantly cloſed: The dragoon at this inſtant being ſhot dead, the ſabre remained in the general's poſſeſſion. I was told, that ſir Sidney Smith being beſide him at the time, the general made him a compliment of this intereſting arm.

About this time, it was perceived that the general had been wounded in the thigh, and was entreated to have it examined; but—'no! it was a trifle,' he ſaid, and would not for a moment diſappear.

The conflict was very long after this; very obſtinate; very fluctuating; very alarming. In ſome parts our ammunition was expended: we had ſome very queſtionable moments as to the reſult.

But the French, moſt probably wanting ammunition likewiſe; wanting ſomething, at leaſt, which our brave army never relaxed in to the laſt, retreated.

Upon this event, the general, whoſe exertions had kept him inſenſible to his weakneſs, retaining the efforts of his mind, giving way to a ſentiment of reſt, his ſpirits receding from their tranſport into calm—he fainted.

His wound was examined; a large inciſion was made to extract the ball. It could not be found. He was put upon a litter, and adviſed to be taken on board the Foudroyant.

It was in this ſtate I firſt met him ſince the morning. He was in good ſpirits. He held his hand to me from the litter—'Don't be concerned, Baldwin,' he ſaid to me, 'I ſhall ſoon be well.' I could make no anſwer to him. I ſat down on the ſand to bewail our misfortune.

In this ſtate, not without hope, I was rouſed by a ſoldier to ſee the Frenchmen retreat, and I walked up to the front of our poſition upon an eminence, and ſaw them gravely retreating in a long line, three deep. Acroſs a valley, of about a mile wide, from the foot of our poſition to the riſing of the hill on which they were encamped, did they gravely retreat. We returned them their civility to us on the 13th; and as they diſcovered the ground over which they paſſed, it was ſtrewed with killed and maimed. They at length, reached the foot of their own hill, and faced about to halt. I ſaw their general, riding from left to right of their line, knocked down by one of our twelve pounds ſhot, juſt about the centre of the line. The horſe got up again, but the general was killed. Thus ended the buſineſs of the 21ſt.

'Theſe victories make me melancholy' ſaid poor ſir Ralph, when he was complimented upon his victory gained on the 13th.

'To ſee ſo many brave men go to death for their country; ſo much the more to be admired; ſo much the

more to be regretted; it does indeed make one melancholy; but how are battles to be won?'

Poor ſir Ralph, under the torment of his wound, was, notwithſtanding, always more concerned about the companions of his affliction. He had been two hours wounded, but would not withdraw from the field. Knowing the value of his preſence, or judging with equal certainty the bad effects of his abſence from the army at this critical conjuncture, he perſevered. Not till the battle was won did he yield to the ſentiment of his pain. When he ſaw the enemy retreat, he fainted. On the 28th he died.

If in the afflicted ſtate into which I am plunged by the recollection of theſe ſcenes, the heart was free to expatiate, I could conſecrate a grateful tribute to his memory. The victories he gained on the 8th, the 13th, and the 21ſt of March, will eternize his military fame; will enſure to his memory the gratitude of his country. If thoſe actions are conſidered in their ſeparate and characteriſtic eſſence, they will ſtand as models to the world. The firſt, for the cool and undaunted conduct of the army while going on ſhore, under ſuch an exploſion of fire, expoſed inactive in the boats; and their action and intrepidity when on ſhore. The ſecond, for its offenſive ſkill and operation; and the third for its defenſive ſtand, and invincible and unreſiſtible bravery in repelling as dangerous an attack as ever was attempted, and boldly conducted by the beſt of troops, acknowledged ſo to be by their victories over every other enemy they had contended with, in the known world.

## *The* HISTORY *of* KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, *and* TASTE, *in* Great Britain, *during the Reign of King* CHARLES II. *Continued from Page* 287.

WENTWORTH DILLON, earl of Roſcommon, was born in Ireland, during the lieutenancy of Strafford, who was his godfather. His father had been converted by Uſher to the Proteſtant religion; and when the popiſh rebellion broke out, Strafford, thinking the family in great danger from the fury of the Iriſh, ſent for his god-ſon, and placed him in Yorkſhire, where he was inſtructed in the Latin language, which he acquired ſo perfectly as to write it with purity and elegance, though he was ſaid not to be able to retain the rules of grammar.

When the ſtorm broke out upon Strafford his houſe was no longer a ſhelter, and Dillon was ſent to Caen, where the Proteſtants had then a univerſity, and continued his ſtudies under Bochart. The ſtate of England and Ireland was long after this time ſuch, that any one who was abſent from either country had very little temptation to return; and therefore Roſcommon, when he left Caen, travelled into Italy, amuſing himſelf with its antiquities, and particularly with medals, in which he obtained uncommon ſkill. At the reſtoration he came to England, was made maſter of the horſe to the ducheſs of York, and married the daughter of the earl of Courtenay. He now employed himſelf in literary projects, and formed the plan of a ſociety, in imitation of the Italian academies, for refining our language and fixing its ſtandard, in which Dryden aſſiſted him. But all plans of new literary inſtitutions were quickly ſuppreſſed by the contentious turbulence of king James' reign; and Roſcommon, foreſeeing ſome violent concuſſion of the ſtate was at hand, purpoſed to retire to Rome. His departure was delayed by the gout; and he was ſo impatient, either of hindrance or of pain, that he ſubmitted himſelf to a French empiric, who is ſaid to have repelled the diſeaſe into his bowels. At the

moment in which he expired, he uttered, with an energy of voice expreſſive of the moſt fervent devotion, two lines of his own verſion of the *Dies Iræ*.

'My God, my Father, and my Friend,
Do not forſake me in my end.'

He died in 1684, and was buried with great pomp in Weſtminſter-abbey.

Of Roſcommon, as a poet, Fenton has given this character:—'In his writings we view the image of a mind naturally ſolid and ſerious, richly furniſhed and adorned with all the ornaments of learning, unaffectedly diſpoſed in the moſt regular and elegant order. His imagination might have been more fruitful and ſprightly, if his judgment had been leſs ſevere; but that ſeverity, delivered in a maſculine, clear, ſuccinct ſtyle, contributed to his eminence in the didactic manner; ſo that no one can affirm, with juſtice, that he was equalled by any of our nation, without confeſſing at the ſame time he was inferior to none. In ſome other kinds of writing his genius ſeems to have wanted fire.'

But a higher teſtimony in his favour is left us; that of Dryden, who acknowledges himſelf to have been diſſatisfied with his own powers, till he had tried whether he was capable of following the rules laid down by lord Roſcommon in his excellent Eſſay on Tranſlated Verſe; of the truth and uſefulneſs of which his reaſon was convinced, and he had endeavoured to obſerve all his inſtructions. On which Johnſon remarks, 'that Roſcommon deſerved his praiſes, had they been beſtowed with diſcernment; not on the rules themſelves, but on the art with which they are introduced, and the decorations with which they are adorned in this eſſay. Yet ſurely the judgment, the ſkill in criticiſm, for which Roſcommon is ſo juſtly famed, is proved by the rules he has given, rather than the mode in which they are conveyed.

His next great work is the Tranſlation of the Art of Poetry. Among his ſmaller compoſitions, the Eclogue of Virgil, and the *Dies Iræ*, are admirably tranſlated. His political verſes are ſprightly, and when publiſhed firſt muſt have been very popular.

Of his writings in general the judgment of the public ſeems to be right: he is elegant, but not great; he never labours after exquiſite beauties, and ſeldom falls into groſs faults; his verſification is ſmooth, but rarely vigorous; and his rhymes are remarkably exact. He improved taſte, but did not enlarge knowledge, and may be numbered among the benefactors to Engliſh literature.

He is perhaps the only correct writer in verſe before Addiſon: nor is this his higheſt praiſe; he was the only moral poet in the reign of Charles II.

John Wilmot, earl of Rocheſter, was born in 1648, in Oxfordſhire; and, after a grammatical education, entered as a nobleman in Wadham college; where, at the age of fourteen, he ſo far diſtinguiſhed himſelf by talents and learning, that he was made maſter of arts, and ſoon after travelled into France and Italy. On his return, which was in his eighteenth year, he devoted himſelf to the court; and was ſo much in favour with king Charles, that he appointed him one of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, and comptroller of Woodſtock park. In the court his principles were corrupted, and his manners depraved: he loſt all ſenſe of religious reſtraint; and, not finding it convenient to admit the authority of laws, which he was reſolved not to obey, ſheltered his vices under infidelity. With an avowed contempt of all order and decency, a total diſregard to every moral tie, and a reſolute denial of every religious obligation, he blazed out his youth and health in voluptuouſneſs and ſenſuality; and at the age of thirty-one had exhauſted the fund of life, and reduced himſelf to a ſtate of weakneſs and decay, which terminated two years after in his death.

During his illneſs he was viſited by

biſhop Burnet; to whom he laid open the tenor of his opinions, and the courſe of his life; and from whom he received ſuch conviction of the reaſonableneſs of moral duty, and the truth of Chriſtianity, as produced a total change in his manners and ſentiments. His end was exemplarily penitent.

Lord Rocheſter was eminent for his wit; and it is much to be lamented, that, with abilities which might have adorned the age, his muſe was proſtituted to licentiouſneſs, and few of his compoſitions remain deſerving notice. Among theſe may be ranked the Imitation of Horace's Satire, Verſes to lord Mulgrave, Lampoon on ſir Carr Scroop, the Satire againſt Man, and Verſes upon Nothing. Conſidered as a poet, he has ſprightlineſs and vigour; tokens may every where be traced of a mind which labour might have carried to excellence. His Imitation of Horace on Lucilius is peculiarly elegant and happy. In the reign of Charles II, began that adaptation, which has ſince been frequent, of ancient poetry to preſent times; and it will not be eaſy to find an inſtance where the parallelism is better preſerved than in this. The verſification is ſometimes careleſs, but the whole is admirable.

His ſongs have no particular character; they are commonly ſmooth and eaſy, but have little nature, and little ſentiment.

One of his moſt vigorous pieces is his Lampoon on ſir Carr Scroop, who provoked him by ſome reflexions in a poem called the *Praiſe of Satire*; though it muſt be confeſſed Rocheſter needed little provocation to exerciſe his wit in libels, of which he declared to biſhop Burnet (who was remonſtrating to him on the evil of defamation) that *lies* were generally ornaments, which could not be ſpared without ſpoiling the beauty of the compoſition.

The ſtrongeſt effort of his muſe is his poem Upon Nothing; wherein the fertility of his genius and the powers of his mind are eminently diſplayed. But he is not the firſt who choſe this barren topic to exhibit them. Paſſerat, a poet in France of the ſixteenth century, has written a poem in Latin on the ſame ſubject; but, on examining their merits, the preference will be given to Rocheſter.

Villiers, duke of Buckingham, was the author of ſeveral pieces in verſe and proſe, and alſo of ſome dramatic works; the moſt celebrated of which is the Rehearſal, of which Dryden is the object of the ſatire, under the name of Bays. This play was received with wonderful applauſe, and ſtill retains poſſeſſion of the theatre. It has been conſidered by a conſummate critic (lord Shafteſbury) as the firſt ſtandard of ridicule, and a moſt perfect piece of the kind. 'The moſt ſucceſsful criticiſm (ſays his lordſhip) is that which approaches neareſt the earlieſt Greek comedy. The highly-rated burleſque poem Hudibras, on the ſubject of religious controverſies, and that juſtly-admired piece of comic wit, the Rehearſal, has furniſhed our beſt writers in religion and politics, as well as in learning and *belles lettres*, with the moſt effectual means of expoſing folly, pedantry, falſe reaſoning, and ill writing.'

Dryden, in revenge for what he calls this 'unmerciful expoſing,' ſatiriſed the duke under the name of Zimri, in his poem of Abſalom and Ahitophel; and the portrait is admirable, being allowed, ſays Wood, by all who ever knew the duke, to have been drawn from the life.

'Some of their chiefs were princes of the land;
In the firſt rank of theſe did Zimri ſtand;
A man ſo various, that he ſeemed to be
Not one, but all mankind's epitome.
Stiff in opinion, always in the wrong;
Was every thing by turns, and nothing long;
But in the courſe of one revolving moon,
A chymiſt, fidler, ſtateſman, and buffoon.
Then all for women, painting, rhyming, drinking,
Beſide ten thouſand freaks which died in thinking!

Railing and praiſing were his uſual themes,
And both, to prove his judgment, in extremes.
In ſquandering wealth was his peculiar art;
Nothing went unrewarded but deſert;
He laughed himſelf from courts, then fought relief
By forming parties—but could ne'er be chief.
Thus wicked but in will, of means bereft,
He left not faction, but by that was left.'
ABSALOM and AHITOPHEL.

But as it would be unjuſt to take his character only from a ſatiriſt whom he had offended, we will ſubjoin it as drawn by Burnet.—'The duke of Buckingham was bred about the king, and, being himſelf ſunk into all the vices of the age, endeavoured to corrupt him; in which he was too ſucceſsful, finding him enough inclined to receive ill impreſſions; and, to complete the matter, under pretence of inſtructing him in mathematics, Hobbes was brought, and he laid before him his ſchemes, both with relation to religion and politics; ſo that the main blame of Charles' looſe principles and bad morals were owing to the duke.

'He had no ſort of literature, no ſteadineſs or conduct; he could keep no ſecret, nor execute any deſign without ſpoiling it; he could never fix his mind, or govern his eſtate, though then the greateſt in England. He had no principles of religion, virtue, or friendſhip. He had great wit, and ſuch an aſcendancy over the king for many years, that he was preferred by the royal favour to the firſt poſts and offices of the kingdom; but he ſpoke of him to all perſons with contempt, which at length drew a laſting diſgrace upon himſelf, and ruined both body and mind, fortune and reputation. He became contemptible, poor, ſickly, ſunk in his parts as well as in all other reſpects, ſo that his converſation was as much avoided as it had ever been courted.'—Yet his addreſs muſt have been extraordinary; for after having attended prince Charles to Scotland, been preſent at the battle of Worceſter, where, being left to himſelf, he eſcaped beyond ſea, he ſtole over to England, made his court to lady Mary the daughter of lord Fairfax, and, by marrying her, obtained moſt of his eſtate. Great muſt have been the powers of that man who equally could pleaſe the puritanic Fairfax and the diſſolute Charles! To the one he could only be acceptable by an appearance of the deepeſt ſanctity, and to the other by open profaneneſs and glaring immorality. The noble employment of Buckingham at court was to mimic and ridicule; for which it muſt be acknowledged he poſſeſſed firſt rate talents; and ſucceeded no leſs in imitating Charles than Clarendon. But whatever diſtinction he obtained by flattering the humours or adminiſtering to the paſſions of the king, he afterward loſt by entering into ſeditious correſpondences, and fomenting diſturbances in the nation. He died April 1687, leaving a memorable example of the end of the wicked, which Pope has deſcribed in his third epiſtle.

'In the worſt inn's * worſt room, with mat half hung,
The floors of plaſter, and the walls of dung,
On once a flock-bed, but repair'd with ſtraw,
With tape-tied curtains, never meant to draw,
The George and garter dangling from that bed
Where tawdry yellow ſtrove with dirty red,
Great Villiers lies. Alas! how chang'd from him,
That life of pleaſure, and that ſoul of whim!
Gallant and gay, in Clivedon's proud alcove,
The bower of wanton Shrewſbury and love.
Or juſt as gay at council, in a ring
Of mimick'd ſtateſmen and their merry king.
No wit to flatter,' reft of all his ſtore;
No fool to laugh at, which he valued more:

* It was reported that the duke died in a remote inn in Yorkſhire; but this is not fully aſcertained. That he died poor and miſerable admits no doubt.

There, victor of his health, of fortune, friends,
And fame, this lord of uſeleſs thouſands ends!'

Charles Sackville, earl of Dorſet, was born in 1637. Having been educated under a private tutor, he travelled into Italy, and returned juſt before the reſtoration. He ſoon became a favourite of Charles, and entered in o thoſe extravagant frolics and licentious pleaſures common to the young men of rank in that time, who aſpired to be wits.

'The fire of his youth (ſays Prior, in his character of him) led him to ſome exceſſes; but they were always ſet right the next day, with great humanity and ample retribution. So much ſweetneſs accompanied what he ſaid, and ſo much generoſity what he did, that people were always prepoſſeſſed in his favour.'

Indeed he appears to have had much better principles than his companions: he was exact in the payment of his debts, a ſtrict obſerver of his word, inviolable in his friendſhips, and unbounded in his charities. 'This extraordinary youth (continues the poet) was accompanied with ſo true a judgment in all parts of fine learning, that whatever ſubject was before him, he diſcourſed upon it as if the peculiar bent of his ſtudy had been applied that way. The moſt eminent maſters appealed to his determination. Waller conſulted him in his verſe, and Spratt in his proſe. Dryden, in the character of Eugenius, abides by his deciſion as to the laws of dramatic poetry. Butler owed it to him that the court taſted Hudibras; and the duke of Buckingham deferred to publiſh his Rehearſal till he was ſure (as he expreſſed it) that Dorſet would not rehearſe upon him again.

'As the judgment he made of the writing of others could not be refuted, ſo the manner in which he wrote himſelf will hardly be equalled. His abundant wit, the brightneſs of his parts, diſtinguiſhed him in an age of great politeneſs, and at a court crowded with men of talents. Every one of his pieces is an ingot of gold, intrinſically and ſolidly valuable; ſuch as, wrought thinner, would ſhine through a whole book of any other author. His thought is always new, and the expreſſion of it ſo peculiarly happy, that it is as natural as inimitable. His love verſes have delicacy and ſtrength; they convey the wit of Petronius in the ſoftneſs of Tibullus; his ſatire indeed is ſeverely pointed, and in it he appears what lord Rocheſter ſays he was,

'The beſt good man with the worſt-natured muſe.'

'Yet even here the character may be applied to him which Perſeus gives of the firſt writer of the kind that ever lived—

'Omne vafer vitium ridenti Flaccus amici,
Tangit, et admiſſus circum præcordia ludit.'

Thus far Prior.—A more ſevere critic of our own times mentions him as a man whoſe elegance and judgment were univerſally confeſſed, and whoſe bounty to the learned and the witty was generally known. And if ſuch a man attempted poetry, we cannot wonder that his works were praiſed. Dryden, whom he diſtinguiſhed by his beneficence, (and who laviſhed his blandiſhments on thoſe who are known not to have deſerved them) in undertaking to produce authors of our own country ſuperior to thoſe of antiquity, ſays, '*I would inſtance your lordſhip in ſatire, and Shakſpeare in tragedy.*'

Would it be imagined, that of this rival to antiquity, all the ſatires were little perſonal invectives, and his longeſt compoſition a ſong of eleven ſtanzas?

The blame, however, of this exaggerated praiſe falls on the encomiaſt, not upon the author; whoſe performances are, what they profeſs to be, the effuſions of a man of wit—gay, vigorous, and airy. His verſes to Howard ſhow great fertility of mind, and his Dorinda has been imitated by Pope.

[To be concluded in our next.]

## *ESSAY ON HUMOUR.*

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

SIR,

*The following* Eſſay on Humour *is from the Pen of the celebrated* Henry Fielding. *It is one of ſeveral of his Productions, which lately fell into my Hands, and which are not to be found in his Works, nor do I believe there are three Copies of them to be found in the Kingdom.* Fielding's *Name would at all Times be a Paſſport, but theſe appear to me to have that intrinſic Merit, which would recommend them without any adventitious Aid. I ſhall ſoon ſend you others, as I find Leiſure to tranſcribe them, and am, &c.*

Non hæc jocoſæ conveniunt Liræ. HOR.

Such matters are beyond a Jeſt.

IF any perſon ſhould have the aſſurance to exhibit a ſet of Briſtol ſtones to the public as real diamonds; or if another ſhould call himſelf a chinaman, and deliver to his cuſtomers ſome of the vileſt earthen-ware, as the real production of China or Dreſden, the conſequence in both caſes is certain. The impoſition would be too groſs to deceive a ſingle individual, and the undertakers would immediately become the objects of univerſal ridicule and contempt.

Again, ſhould any man, pretending to be a connoiſſeur, go about the town and abuſe the fineſt jewels as mere counterfeits, would not ſuch a perſon preſently gain the reputation of a madman, and be ſoon aſhamed of ſhowing his ridiculous face in public?

This, however, is not the caſe with the dealers in letters. The trueſt brilliants often lie overlooked and neglected on the booksellers' ſhelves, while the moſt impudent counterfeits are received, admired, and encouraged. Milton himſelf (I am aſhamed of my country when I ſay it) very narrowly eſcaped from the jaws of oblivion; and, inſtead of ſhining for ever with thoſe great lights of antiquity, in whoſe conſtellation he is now admitted, was like to have been bundled up with thoſe Ephemeran inſect authors, of whom every day almoſt ſees both the birth and the funeral.

Now may we not hence conclude, that in the diſtinction of diamonds, china, and ſuch like, from their counterfeits, there are ſome certain well-known criterions to form and direct our judgment; and that in matters of invention and learning, either there are no rules to guide our opinion, or that ſuch rules are but weakly eſtabliſhed, and that we are in general very ignorant of them.

Hence muſt ariſe thoſe different notions, which we ſo often find among men, of the ſame author, and the ſame work; and which Horace allegorically points at, when he ſays,

Tres mihi Convivæ prope diſſentire videntur, &c.

Thus in one company it is very common to hear the ſame book extolled to the ſkies, with the epithets of fine, excellent, inimitable, and ſo forth; which in another is vilified and run down, as the loweſt, dulleſt, and ſaddeſt ſtuff that ever was writ.

Of all kinds of writing, there is none on which this variety of opinions is ſo common as in thoſe of *humour*, as perhaps there is no word in our language of which men have in general ſo vague and indeterminate an idea. To ſpeak very plainly, I am apt to queſtion whether the greater part of mankind have any idea at all in their heads, when this word drops (perhaps accidentally) from their tongue.

I remember a gentleman who uſed to have this word very frequently in his mouth, and beſtowed it with great liberality on moſt of his acquaintance. I was ſometimes inclined to wonder at his taſte, till I happened to be on board a ſhip with him, when he rapt out a great oath, and ſwore that the ſhip had a great deal of humour in it. I was now ſatisfied that with my friend this word had no meaning at all.

What can we ſometimes conceive of an audience at a playhouſe, where I have heard the dulleſt chit-chat between gentlemen and ladies called humour, and applauded as ſuch! On the other ſide, Albumazar (a comedy revived by Garrick) was but coldly received, and the little French lawyer of Fletcher was hiſſed off the ſtage.

And here I cannot omit a pleaſant fact, to which I was myſelf a witneſs. A certain comic author produced a piece on Drury-lane ſtage, called the *Highland Fair*, in which he intended to diſplay the comical humours of the Highlanders; the audience, who had for three nights together ſat ſtaring at each other, ſcarce knowing what to make of their entertainment, on the fourth, joined in a unanimous exploding laugh. This they had continued through an act, when the author, who unhappily miſtook the peals of laughter, which he heard for applauſe, went up to Mr. Wilks, and, with an air of triumph, ſaid, 'Deel o' my ſaul, ſir, they begin to *take the humour* at laſt!'

Whether the audience or the poet erred moſt on this occaſion, I ſhall not determine. Certain it is that it is no unuſual thing in the former, to make very groſs miſtakes in this matter, as great indeed as the late learned Bernard Lintott, the bookſeller, who, having purchaſed the copy of a tragedy, called Phædra and Hypolitus, lamented that the author had not put a little more humour in it; for that, he ſaid, was the only thing it wanted.

In truth, there is nothing ſo unſettled and uncertain, as our notion of humour in general. The moſt common opinion is, that whatever diverts or makes you laugh, is humour: and in proportion as men are more or leſs riſible in their nature, they are more or leſs liberal in this appellation. A merry fellow, or a pleaſant companion, as he is called (and, by the bye, I have known many a dull dog called ſo) never fails to obtain the character of a man of humour, among his acquaintance and admirers. The qualifications of theſe gentlemen, are a facetious countenance, a ſagacious leer, and ſomewhat of drollery in the voice; and their performances are uſually a merry catch, or a long ſtory, with a ſting of the ſame kind in the tail.

I forbear to mention here the vaſt variety of handy or practical jeſts, as I have ſeen them touched elſewhere, all which are reputed to be humour by the vulgar. Such are tweaks by the noſe, kicks on the breech, pulling away your chair, ſnatching off your wig, with many others.

But there is another kind of humour, on which I do not remember to have ſeen any remarks. This is that tragical humour, which was perhaps intended by the learned bookſeller abovementioned; and which, though it may tend to raiſe laughter in ſome, may however be ſaid to have its foundation in tears.

As the ſpecies of practical humour, juſt before ſpoken of, are produced by doing little jocoſe miſchiefs to others, this tragical humour conſiſts in afflicting men with the greateſt and moſt ſerious evils; in a word, in ruining, deſtroying, and tormenting mankind.

Hiſtories abound with examples of men, who have very eminently poſſeſſed this kind of humour. There has ſcarce exiſted indeed a ſingle tyrant or conqueror upon earth, who, though otherwiſe perhaps extremely dull, was not a great maſter this way. Alexander the Great was much gifted with this quality, of which we have many inſtances in the accounts of his Aſiatic expedition. His burning the city of Perſepolis in particular,

was a performance of moſt exquiſite humour.

What were the reigns of Caligula and Claudius, of Nero and Domitian, of Commodus, Caracalla, Heliogabalus, and all thoſe imperial bucks or bloods of Rome, but great tragical farces in which one half of mankind, was with much humour put to death and tortures, for the diverſion of the other half.

But of all the performances of this kind I have ever met with, I am moſt pleaſed with the common ſtory of Phalarus and Perillus. The latter of theſe being deſirous of recommending himſelf to the favour of the former, who was a great tyraut, and conſequently a great lover of the tragical humour, acquainted his maſter Phalarus, that he had, with much invention and hard labour, contrived an entertainment for him, which would produce the higheſt ſport and paſtime. It was thus to be performed; the artiſt had made the brazen image of a bull, into the belly of which a human creature was to be conveyed. The bull was then to be heated till it was red hot, by means of which the perſon incloſed within, ſuffering the moſt intolerable torments, would bellow in ſuch a manner, that the ſound would very nearly imitate, or, to ſpeak in the preſent faſhionable taſte, would admirably *mimic*, the roaring of a bull.

Phalarus highly approved the project; but being himſelf a man of great humour, he was willing to add ſomewhat of his own to the joke. He therefore choſe Perillus, the inventor, for the perſon on whom the experiment was firſt to be tried, and accordingly ſhut him up and roaſted him in his own bull.

From this, I ſuppoſe, that pleaſant humour called *roaſting* was derived, for ſo not only the term, but the thing ſeems to imitate; this diverting entertainment conſiſting in giving all the torments poſſible to the object, and may indeed be called roaſting him alive.

Hence likewiſe the pleaſant paſtime of roaſting men's characters, may poſſibly take its original. Hence all that torrent of humour, which flows ſo plentifully in libels of all kinds, in which names that we ought to tremble to think of, and others which highly deſerve our reverence and honour, are pointed out as the marks of ridicule and contempt; and, to uſe the common expreſſion, *roaſted* for the entertainment of the public.

To conclude, as Tully long ago ſaid, that there was no abſurdity, which ſome of the ſophiſts had not maintained to be true philoſophy: ſo there is no nonſenſe whatever, provided it be daſhed with abuſe and ſcurrility, which will not paſs with many for *true humour*.

## *MANNER OF LIVING IN PETERSBURG.*

[From Storch's Picture of Peterſburg.]

*The following Extract will perhaps be found more intereſting than any we have yet given. It is only by acquiring a Knowledge of foreign Manners, and inſtituting Compariſons, that we can acquire a proper Senſe of our own, which from Habit merely, we are apt to think ſuperior and unexceptionable.*

IT is extremely intereſting, ſays our author, to hear the accounts given by old people of the ſudden alteration that has taken place in the ſtyle and manner of living among the middle ranks.—But thoſe days are paſt; the good golden times when the prime miniſter of the Ruſſian empire dwelt in a ſmall wooden houſe, which, at preſent, is tenanted by a merchant, as his rural cot! when a placeman thought himſelf happy if his ſalary amounted to five hundred roubles, and when this was quite ſufficient for main-

taining a family! when the richeſt banker drove to 'change in his one-horſe cabriole, and our ladies paid their viſits on foot! No where, perhaps, has luxury kept ſo equal a pace with refinement of manners; never did a people ſo rapidly paſs on from the utmoſt ſimplicity to the higheſt pitch of poliſhed life.

Enjoyment is the grand concern, the main object of all activity, the great ſpur to competition, the pivot on which our daily courſe of life turns round. One part of the public, indeed, muſt work, that they may enjoy; but likewiſe a very great proportion enjoy without working. Even the labouring Peterſburger would be ſtartled if he could compare his day's work with the burden that in other countries bows the backs of the labouring part of the community.

The day begins with the polite world at different periods. It is ſtill early, ſays the merchant, ſtretching himſelf on his downy couch at nine or ten o'clock in the forenoon; whereas the dangler at court, or the client, has been waiting ever ſince ſix in the guard-room of the palace, or the anti-chamber of his patron. The buſtle in the ſtreets, the buſineſs of the common people, is regulated in winter by the break of day; in ſummer the fine mornings and the ſcarcely ſetting ſun draw many a lazy citizen from his bed at an early hour, and the ſmoke is riſing from the chimnies, whereas, in winter, at the ſame time, all are ſtill buried in profound repoſe. When the breakfaſt and the affairs of the toilette are over, the forenoon begins, the time uſually devoted to buſineſs. All tranſactions of this nature muſt be done in the ſpace between that and dinner: the tumult of the ſtreets and the ſtillneſs of the houſe are never greater than during theſe hours. While the male part of the inhabitants are engaged in their affairs, and the wives of the citizens are looking after houſehold concerns and preparing for the table, the higher claſſes of ladies are lolling in their carriages through the ſtreets to the confectioners and milliners, or to make their morning viſits. The fop, that heteroclite being, not excluded from either ſex, and belonging to none, promenades in the mean time through the book-ſhops and warehouſes for all ſorts of goods, to pick up new-faſhioned toys and ſentiments for the company of the day. In ſummer the quays and the public gardens of general reſort for people of the higher ſtations.

Amid theſe various occupations the hour of noon comes on; and then every aim and every intereſt is abſorbed in the coſmopolitical ſentiment, of feaſting and being feaſted. Now the numerous tribe of *dineurs en ville* are all in motion, and the company-rooms fill apace. In moſt houſes it is the cuſtom to ſit down to dinner at about two o'clock; ſome merchants dine before 'change, but the generality after; that is, between three and four o'clock. The Engliſh, and ſuch as would paſs for Engliſh, take their principal meal about five, ſo that a man might very commodiouſly dine at three ſeveral houſes in one day. The length of the meal is naturally regulated by the number of courſes, the fertility of the converſation, and occaſional uſage; it ſeldom terminates, however, under three or four hours, as the converſation is continued for ſome time over the coffee. The afternoon, or, which is here the ſame thing, the evening, is ſeldom, except on urgent occaſions, devoted to buſineſs. Where the company ſtays, the card-tables are immediately ſet out, at which they are engaged till the late ſupper. It is cuſtomary, however, for the dinner-gueſts to depart immediately after riſing from the table, and afterward a freſh company comes in to tea and ſupper. During theſe hours, at leaſt, nine-tenths of all the people, above the loweſt vulgar, are employed at cards. About midnight, or, in families where greater regularity prevails, at ten o'clock ſupper is ſerved up, conſiſting of ſuch a profuſion of diſhes as would ſufficiently

compenſate for having gone without a dinner. The inſtant that ſupper is over, is the ſignal for the company to break up. About this time the carriages are heard rolling through the ſtreets, diſturbing the profound ſilence, in which, particularly in the dark evenings of winter, the town had been for ſome hours buried.

Much having been already ſaid in this book concerning the *hoſpitality* that here prevails; it will be proper now to add ſomewhat to the manner in which it is practiſed, and the ſource whence it originates. It may be boldly affirmed, that this noble virtue of the days of yore is not carried to ſuch an unlimited extent in any capital of Europe as here: an aſſertion to which the concurrent voices of all travellers, who have ſtaid here a longer or a ſhorter time, bear grateful teſtimony. The origin of this beneficent cuſtom is, doubtleſs, national; but the Peterſburgers have emancipated themſelves from ſo many of their native cuſtoms and uſages, that we may reaſonably admit ſome ſtronger motive than a reverence for antiquity for their having retained ſo expenſive a national virtue. This motive is no other than the diſpoſition to ſociety which prevails in every Peterſburger, almoſt without exception; a characteriſtic which likewiſe redounds very much to their honour, it being frequently the ſource of humane ſentiments and generous actions. It would, however, be requiring too much, that this motive ſhould ſubſiſt in all its purity, in the great multitude as well as in the politer, and more refined part of the community. Emptineſs of head and heart, unacquainted with ſilent mental recreations, thirſt of amuſement, the pleaſure of ſeeing and being ſeen, the deſire of forming connections, the propenſity to play, and a hundred other views of various kinds, here, as in other places, impel mankind together, becauſe in all places human nature is the ſame. Strong and cogent, however, as the call to ſociability may be, without the means of correſponding with it, the internal impulſe and the outward conduct would operate in vain to its advantage. An affluence generally diffuſed, at leaſt, among moſt of the claſſes, facilitates to the Peterſburgers the ultimate aim of their exiſtence and exertions, ſocial enjoyment. Without this fortunate circumſtance, the virtue of ſociability would be like an inanimate beauty, whoſe charms might excite admiration without inſpiring ſenſibility and participation. Favoured as we are, ſhe is elevated to a deity, on whoſe altar every one ſacrifices, and who in return, with a liberal hand, imparts enjoyment to every mortal. The rich and poor have equal ſhares; the former give, the latter receive, and all enjoy.

Sociability is here of a quite different character from that of the other countries of Europe, with the manners and uſages whereof we are unacquainted. It inſinuates itſelf not merely among friends and intimate acquaintances, as in England, where there is properly no general ſociability at all, though friendſhip ſeems to be far more common. It is not merely confined to converſation, as in Germany, where it is the cuſtom to part about dinner-time, with ſatiated minds and hungry ſtomachs, or where a whole company meets for taking a cup of coffee. Our ſociability conſiſts in the ſocial enjoyment of all the comforts of life. A man reſerves nothing but his buſineſs and his cares to himſelf and his confidents; all the reſt is common property, which ſeems to belong leſs to the principal than to his companions. Not only ſome of thoſe vacant hours which a man would otherwiſe paſs between ſleeping and waking; not ſome few particular holidays on which avarice decorates herſelf with the mantle of decent profuſion; not the remains of ſelfiſh epicuriſm, are here the offerings made to ſocial enjoyment; no, every moment of exemption from buſineſs and care, every feſtive day, and every dainty

morſel are devoted to liberal participation.

The particular time when the affluent Peterſburger wiſhes moſt to be incited is exactly that, which in Germany, for inſtance, is moſt ſedulouſly avoided: dinner-time and ſupper-time. Every man here is then eaſy in mind and open of heart, freed from all buſineſs and diſpoſed to converſation. Whoever has been once introduced to a family, has ever after free acceſs if he be found agreeable. This is uſually determined at the firſt viſit; for if, at taking leave, no further invitation enſues, it is then adviſable not to think of cultivating that acquaintance. If the gueſt be agreeable to the hoſt, the latter informs him, at the end of the firſt viſit, of his day for receiving company, if he has one, or preſſes him to frequent his houſe as often as he ſhall find it convenient. A young man poſſeſſing any tolerable talents for ſociety at Peterſburg, is entirely relieved from the trouble of houſe-keeping; when once he is acquainted with ſix or eight good families, he may every day eat and drink with his friends in very agreeable company. This manner of life, which is extremely common with ſingle men of all ranks, has nothing diſreputable in it. The expence in clothes that renders it neceſſary, and the play in which it involves them, counterbalance to the purſe any advantage that this paraſitical life may occaſion. To this muſt be added the want of company, which the generality of Peterſburgers ſo ſenſibly feel. If all ſingle men were to keep their own kitchens, or to dine at the taverns, the majority of the good houſes would be deſerted and empty. No ſituation could be more dreadful for our elegant circles than ſolitude.

Whatever eaſe and hoſpitality prevail in regard to the above-mentioned claſs of people, yet they are under great limitations among family acquaintances and married perſons. Every houſe having its peculiar circle meeting at it, but few families have time or neceſſity for going in queſt of company abroad. The difference in the way of living and expences raiſes, as it were, a party-wall, which frequently ſeparates perſons who have long been living in the moſt intimate familiarity. Many, who, while bachelors were daily gueſts in great and opulent families, find themſelves obliged, on marrying, to drop theſe acquaintances from not being able to keep pace in expence with them. Theſe little particulars may may ſeem trifling in the relation, but they have a marked influence on the ſtyle of ſociety, giving it a characteriſtic ſtamp peculiar to itſelf. The major part of all circles naturally conſiſt of men, as unmarried ladies never viſit, and the married company expect viſits at home: the miſtreſs of the houſe is frequently the only lady at a table of ten or twenty perſons. This great ſuperiority in numbers occaſions the converſation to take a graver turn in moſt companies. Politics and buſineſs being the grand ſubjects of all table-talk, the ladies are reduced to the alternative of either taking part in this diſcourſe, or of being totally ſilent. The little attentions that the men vouchſafe to pay the ladies in other countries, are here often entirely neglected; the natural conſequence of which is, that the ladies, wherever they are not abſolutely ſequeſtered, ſeek their revenge by an impreſſive oppoſition to the majority. At table they ſit cloſe together, and in company they divide off; if they happen to be involved in a converſation, or in a party at cards, they are dryneſs itſelf, and deter, by their cold anſwers and repulſive manners, even thoſe whom they might gain over to them by ſome little encouragement. None will be ſo unreaſonable as to generalize this deſcription too much, as though it admitted of no exceptions; ſuch exceptions, however, are rare, and they are in no peculiar credit among the ſex to which they belong.

Abating for this defect, the ſtyle of the Peterſburg companies has little to dread from the animadverſions of the ſevereſt man of the world. That amiable eaſe, which is juſt as remote from the ſtiff, formal etiquette of the Germans as from the exceſſive liberties of the French, is here the ſoul of all faſhionable ſociety. The little ceremonial laws, obſerved elſewhere with ſuch unremitted ſtrictneſs, are here entirely unknown; in the ſtead whereof is ſubſtituted a tacit agreement to appear as pleaſing and affable, and to ſacrifice to the company as much of their due as they poſſibly can. Theſe engaging endeavours to be to others what they could wiſh them to be, ſmoothen the ordinary character in proportion as they render that of the individual more prominent: but it would be difficult to point out the method of making, in a numerous and mixed company; the ſocial manners harmonize with the particular humour of each individual. The ſacrifice that every one makes to ſociety, is no leſs voluntary than the reſolution, by which the duration of it is fixed. Here no intreaties, no preſſing ſolicitations are uſed; whoever is agreeable to the family, goes thither as often as he finds it convenient, without having to apprehend in one caſe any croſs-looks for repeating his viſits too often, or in the other, thoſe country-town reproaches for his long abſence, unleſs in either caſe he exceed the proportion ſettled by prevailing cuſtom, or by particular conſiderations which are eaſy to be perceived. No rule of etiquette preſcribes the duration of the viſit, or the mode of taking leave. The perſon comes as an uninvited, but as an expected gueſt; he ſtays as long as he pleaſes, and uſually retires in ſilence, without diſturbing the company by a noiſy and verboſe ceremonial.

It may naturally be aſked here, how this people ſo fond of ſociety, employ themſelves in company. Certainly, the uſual means of entertainment would be here inſufficient, if they had not the art of giving them attraction, even to cold and phlegmatic tempers, and prevents the irkſomeneſs of perpetual uniformity. The pleaſures of the table, cards, and converſation here, as elſewhere, ſupply the materials from which every one ſpins out his own amuſement, according to the diverſity of gifts of ſuſceptibility and communication; but the manner in which theſe ſources of ſocial pleaſure are employed, is ſo peculiar as to afford ſome ſtriking features characteriſtic of the Peterſburgers.

Though it is the cuſtom all over the world to ſit down to table, for the purpoſe of ſatisfying a natural appetite, and of indulging more or leſs in ſenſuality; yet, in few places is the latter ſo much the object of all parties as here. The moſt agreeable circle and a frugal table will be ſure to find fewer *amateurs*, than a well-furniſhed exquiſite table and a dearth of converſation.—Card-playing is the moſt ordinary kind of paſtime in all the cities of Europe: but here people play, not ſo much for paſſing away the time, as to ſet the paſſions in motion by a powerful intereſt. A ſmall game, the event whereof, in the moſt unfortunate caſe, would ſeem to the Peterſburgers time entirely thrown away. Games of forfeits, riddles, charades, *bout-rimés*, and other trifling amuſements under whatever other names they paſs, which in the family-parties in Germany produce ſuch ſallies of mirth and wit, here find no admittance, as they neither tickle the palate, nor gratify the mind, nor give ſcope to the paſſions. Thoſe games at cards where luck, or chance, has greateſt ſhare in the deciſion, are the moſt eſteemed; in families where games of hazard are not permitted, they pitch on thoſe that come neareſt to them. For this reaſon, whiſt was forced to give way to *Boſton*, becauſe in the latter, chance had a freer ſcope, and becauſe the Peterſburgers had found out the method, by a refinement of luxury, to multiply the

combinations of this adventurous game.

Converſation is generally the laſt reſource, a means for filling up the vacant moments left by play, and the pleaſures of the table. This branch of the entertainment, however, has ſuch intereſting and characteriſtic ſides as to render it worth while to examine it a little nearer. One peculiar advantage of our circles, ſince few great cities have it in ſo great a proportion, is the mixture of perſons of all ranks and countries, of all religious denominations, and of the moſt diverſified manners, habits and humours. No where is this confluence ſo great, and no where does mutual toleration extend to ſuch lengths as here. It is by no means unuſual to ſee generals, chief officers of ſtate, decorated perſonages, merchants, ſcholars and artiſts, together in one company of ten or twelve perſons, Ruſſians, Germans, Engliſhmen, Frenchmen, Spaniards, and Swediſh. The firſt great benefit ariſing from this amalgamation of mankind is *toleration*.

*Deſcription of a* DWARF *of a very remarkable Conformation. By Baron* F. Von Wurmb, *late Secretary to the Batavian Society of the Arts and Sciences in the Iſland of Java.*

A FEW years ago there was ſeen at Batavia a native of the iſland of Bali*, named Kitip, who was ſo ſmall, and at the ſame time diminiſhed in ſo ſymmetric a manner, that he deſerves to be conſidered as one of the rareſt phænomena in the animal economy of nature.

His whole length amounted only to two feet eleven inches Engliſh meaſure, or about 33¼ Rhinlandiſh inches; and the reduction of his body on both ſides ſo regularly alike, that the opinion of Buffon reſpecting the power of ſimple parts acting on both ſides with equal force, from which ariſe the double parts on the expanſion of the animal body, ſeems to be fully confirmed. The head, though by far too large for the body of this dwarf, and which might have ſuited one of ſix feet, exhibited in other reſpects nothing remarkable. His countenance, conſidering his race, was not diſagreeable, as the features ſeemed to expreſs a grave and not unpleaſant diſpoſition. His hair was long and black, but here and there a little gray, becauſe he had almoſt attained to the fortieth year of his age. Like moſt of his countrymen, he had no beard. His ſkin was of a browniſh colour. His ſhoulders were broad, and his cheſt ſtrong. The belly had the uſual form, only that it was too much contracted toward the lower part. His arms were too long in proportion to the body, and a little twiſted, or turned outward. The lower part of the arms was only half as long as that above the elbow: the hands were ſhort, broad, and of a round form before. The fingers conſiſted of round ſtumps which were totally looſe, without being ſtrongly connected with the bones of the hand behind, and which were capable of no movement. They were furniſhed with nails, and conſiſted of the third row only of the finger joints, as the firſt and ſecond were totally wanting. Each hand had ſix of theſe ſhapeleſs fingers; two ſtanding cloſe together, in the place of the little finger, and the other four in the place of the thumb, the fore, middle, and ring finger. The bones of the hand were bent a little outward, by which means the firſt appeared round, and the back of it ſomewhat hollow. This ſmall cavity

* Bali, or Balei, is one of the ſmall iſlands lying on the eaſt coaſt of Java, the inhabitants of which carry on a trade in ſlaves with Batavia, and procure in return ſuch articles as they ſtand in need of. This iſland is called alſo Leſſer Java.

was of great ſervice to little Kitip on account of the ſhortneſs and immobility of his fingers, eſpecially at the time of his meals, as he uſed the back of his hand inſtead of a ſpoon, in order to convey rice and other food to his mouth. His legs were remarkably ſhort; the feet ſeemed to have grown out of them quite ſolid; for, though their motion gave reaſon to ſuppoſe the exiſtence of the bone of the leg and iſchia, there was, however, no external appearance of them. The knees were entirely wanting. The feet were ſhort and broad. Each foot had ſix toes ſimilar in form to the fingers, and which had grown out in the like manner; but with this difference, that they were connected with the feet by a ſmall part of their round ſurface, and that the two which ſtood in the place of the little toe adhered ſomewhat to each other.

This dwarf was born of well proportioned parents at Squoati, in the iſland of Bali, in the year 1740. He never had the ſmalleſt intercourſe with the female ſex, nor ſhowed the leaſt inclination for it. It appeared, however, that he was far from having been neglected by nature in this reſpect, and that his continence aroſe rather from an opinion he entertained, that if he denied himſelf the gratification of intercourſe with the ſex in this world, he would obtain a more perfect body in the next, but that on this ſide the grave he would remain a deformed dwarf. However much he was convinced that nature had neglected him at his birth, he nevertheleſs believed ſhe had given herſelf the trouble to preſerve him by a miracle, which took place ſoon after he was born. He related, in this reſpect, that his mother, aſhamed of having brought ſo deformed a child into the world, reſolved immediately to deſtroy him, but found to her aſtoniſhment, when ſhe attempted to commit this barbarous deed, that her child was completely invulnerable. This miraculous circumſtance filled her with aſtoniſhment, and conducted her back to parental duty.

The following are the proportions of this dwarf, according to meaſurement:—The whole length 2 feet 11 inches. From the ſoles of the feet to the commencement of the thighs 9½ inches. Length of the foot 3 inches, height of the foot 2½ inches: breadth of the foot before 3½ inches. Length of the arm 10 inches. From the elbow to the joint of the wriſt 5 inches; from the joint of the wriſt to the tip of the middle finger 2 inches. Length and circumference of the finger ¾ of an inch. Length and circumference of the thumb 1 inch. Diſtance from the tip of the thumb to tip of the little finger 3 inches. Breadth of the ſhoulders 1 foot. Length of the head 9 inches. Circumference of the upper part of the arm 9 inches; circumference of the wriſt 5 inches; of the neck 12 inches; of the body at the nipples of the breaſt 2 feet 6 inches; of the body at the navel 2 feet 2 inches; of the thigh 1 foot 7 inches; of the ancle 9 inches.

## *STRUTT'S SPORTS AND PASTIMES OF THE PEOPLE OF ENGLAND.*

### GOFF—PALL-MALL.

IT ſhould ſeem that goff was a faſhionable game among the nobility at the commencement of the ſeventeenth century, and it was one of the exerciſes with which prince Henry, eldeſt ſon to James 1, occaſionally amuſed himſelf, as we learn from the following anecdote recorded by a perſon who was preſent*: 'At another time playing at goff, a play not unlike to pale-maille, while his ſchoolmaſter ſtood talking with another, and marked not his highneſs warning him to ſtand further off, the prince thinking he had gone aſide, lifted up his goff-club to ſtrike the ball; mean tyme one ſtanding by, ſaid to him,

* An anonymous author of a MS. in the Harleian Library, marked 6391.

Beware that you hit not maſter Newton; wherewith he drawing back his hand, ſaid, "Had I done ſo, I had but paid my debts."'

A paſtime called ſhow-ball is frequently mentioned by the writers of the ſixteenth and ſeventeenth centuries, which, I preſume, was a ſpecies of goff, at leaſt it appears to have been played with the ſame kind of ball.

According to the author juſt now quoted, pall-mall was a paſtime not unlike goff, but if the definition of the former, given by Congreve, be correct, it will be found to differ materially from the latter, at leaſt as it was played in modern times. 'Pale-maille,' ſays he, 'is a game wherein a round box ball is ſtruck with a mallet through a high arch of iron, which he that can do at the feweſt blows, or at the number agreed upon, wins.' It is to be obſerved, that there are two of theſe arches, that is, 'one at either end of the alley.' The game of mall was a faſhionable amuſement in the reign of Charles II, and the walk in St. James' park, now called the *Mall*, received its name from having been appropriated to the purpoſe of playing at mall, where Charles himſelf and his courtiers frequently exerciſed themſelves in the practice of this paſtime. The denomination *mall* given to the game, is evidently derived from the mallet or wooden hammer uſed by the players to ſtrike the ball.

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THE QUINTAIN.

THIS exerciſe is ſaid to have received the name of *quintain* from Quinctus or Quintas the inventor; but who he was, or when he lived, is not aſcertained. The game itſelf, I doubt not, is of remote origin, and eſpecially the exerciſe of the pel, or poſt quintain, which is ſpoken of at large by Vegetius; he tell us this ſpecies of mock combat was in common uſe among the Romans, who cauſed the young military men to practiſe at it twice in the day, at morning and at noon.

In the code of laws eſtabliſhed by the emperor Juſtinian, the quintain is mentioned as a well-known ſport; and permitted to be continued upon condition that it ſhould be performed with pointleſs ſpears, contrary to the ancient uſage, which it ſeems required them to have heads or points.

To the beſt of my recollection, Fitzſtephen is the firſt of our writers who ſpeaks of an exerciſe of this kind, which he tells us was uſually practiſed by the young Londoners upon the water during the Eaſter holidays. A pole or maſt, ſays he, is fixed in the midſt of the Thames, with a ſhield ſtrongly attached to it; and a boat being previouſly placed at ſome diſtance, is driven ſwiftly toward it by the force of oars and the violence of the tide, having a young man ſtanding in the prow, who holds a lance in his hand with which he is to ſtrike the ſhield; and, if he be dexterous enough to break the lance againſt it and retain his place, his moſt ſanguine wiſhes are ſatisfied: on the contrary, if the lance be not broken, he is ſure to be thrown into the water, and the veſſel goes away without him; but at the ſame time two other boats are ſtationed near to the ſhield, and furniſhed with many young perſons who are in readineſs to reſcue the champion from danger. It appears to have been a very popular paſtime; for the bridge, the wharfs, and the houſes near the river, were crowded with people on this occaſion, who come, ſays the author, to ſee the ſports and make themſelves merry.

Matthew Paris mentions the quintain by name, but he ſpeaks of it in a curſory manner as a well-known paſtime, and probably would have ſaid nothing about it, had not the following circumſtance given him the occaſion. In the thirty-eighth year of the reign of Henry III, the young Londoners, who, he tells us, were expert horſemen, aſſembled together to run at the quintain, and ſet up a peacock as a reward for the beſt performer. The king then keeping his

court at Weſtminſter, ſome of his domeſtics came into the city to ſee the paſtime, where they behaved in a very diſorderly manner, and treated the Londoners with much inſolence *, which they reſented by beating them ſoundly; the king, however, was incenſed at the indignity put upon his ſervants, and not taking into conſideration the provocation on their parts, fined the city one thouſand marks.

'This exerciſe of running at the quintain, was practiſed at London, as well in the ſummer as in the winter, but eſpecially at the feaſt of Chriſtmas. I have ſeen,' continues my author (Stow) 'a quintain ſet upon Cornhill by Leadenhall, where the attendants of the lords of merry diſports have run and made great paſtime; for he that hit not the broad end of the quintain was laughed to ſcorn, and he that hit it full, if he rode not the faſter, had a ſound blow upon his neck with a bag full of ſand hanged on the other end:' but the form of the modern quintain is more fully deſcribed by Dr. Plott: 'They firſt,' ſays he, 'ſet a poſt perpendicularly into the ground, and then place a ſlender piece of timber on the top of it on a ſpindle, with a board nailed to it on one end, and a bag of ſand hanging at the other; againſt this board they anciently rode with ſpears. Now, as I ſaw it at Deddington, in this county, only with ſtrong ſtaves, which violently bringing about the bag of ſand, if they make not good ſpeed away it ſtrikes them in the neck or ſhoulders, and ſometimes knocks them off their horſes; the great deſign of this ſport being to try the agility both of horſe and man, and to break the board. It is now,' adds he, 'only in requeſt at marriages, and ſet up in the way for young men to ride at as they carry home the bride, he that breaks the board being counted the beſt man.'

Among other ſports exhibited for the amuſement of queen Eliſabeth, during her reſidence at Kenelworth caſtle, was, ſays Laneham, 'a ſolemn country bridal; when in the caſtle was ſet up a comely quintane for feats at armes, where, in a great company of young men and laſſeſs, the bridegroom had the firſt courſe at the quintane, and broke his ſpear *tres hardiment*. But his mare in his manage did a little ſtumble, that much adoe had his manhood to ſit in his ſaddle. But after the bridegroom had made his courſe, ran the reſt of the band, awhile in ſome order, but ſoon after tag and rag, cut and long tail; where the ſpeciality of the ſport was to ſee how ſome for the ſlackneſs had a good bob with the bag, and ſome for his haſte to topple downright, and come tumbling to the poſt: ſome ſtriving ſo much at the firſt ſetting out, that it ſeemed a queſtion between man and beaſt, whether the race ſhould be performed on horſeback or on foot; and ſome put forth with ſpurs would run his race byas among the thickeſt of the throng, that down they came together hand over head. Another, while he directed his courſe to the quintane, his judgment would carry him to a mare among the people; another would run and miſs the quintane with his ſtaff, and hit the board with his head †.' This whimſical deſcription may poſſibly be ſomewhat exaggerated, but no doubt the inexpertneſs of the riders ſubjected them to many laughable accidents.

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SHOWS—PAGEANTS, &c.

MANY of theſe ſtately ſhows are deſcribed at length by Hall and Holinſhed; therefore, I ſubjoin an account of two of them in Hall's own words. In the fifth year of the reign of Henry VIII, his majeſty kept his Chriſtmas at Greenwich; and on twelfth night there came,' ſays the hiſtorian, 'into

* Calling them *cowardly knaves* and *raſcally clowns*. Some have thought theſe fellows were ſent thither purpoſely to promote a quarrel, it being known that the king was angry with the citizens of London for refuſing to join in the cruſade. Strype's edit. of Stow's Survey, &c.

† Laneham's account of the entertainment of queen Eliſabeth at Kenelworth.

the great hall, a mount, called the *riche mount*. This mount was ſet full of riche flowers of ſilke, and eſpecially of brome ſlippes full of poddes, the branches were grene ſattin, and the flowers flat gold of damaſke, which ſignified Plantagenet: on the top ſtood a goodly bekon giving light, rounde above the bekon ſat the Kyng and five other al in coates and cappes of right crimoſin velvet, embroudered with flat golde of damaſke, their coates ſet full of ſpangelles of gold; and foure woodhouſes * drew the mount 'till it came before the queen, and then the Kyng and his compaigne diſcended and daunced; then ſuddainly the mount opened, and out came ſix ladies all in crimoſin, ſatin, and plunket, embroudered with golde and perle, with Frenche hoodes on their heddes, and they daunced alone. Then the lordes of the mount tooke the ladies and daunced together, and the ladies re-entered, and the mount cloſed, and ſo was conveyed out of the hall.'

In the tenth year of the ſame king's reign, in honour of his ſiſter the princeſs Mary's marriage with the king of France, there was exhibited in the great hall at Greenwich, 'a rock ful of al maner of ſtones very artificially made, and on the top ſtood five trees: the firſt was an olive tree, on which hanged a ſhield of the armes of the church of Rome; the ſecond was a pyne aple tree, with the armes of the emperor; the third was a roſyer, with the armes of England; the fourth a braunche of lylies, bearing the armes of France; and the fifth a pomegranet tree, bearing the armes of Spayn; in token that all theſe five potentates were joined together in one league againſt the enemies of Chriſte's fayth: in and upon the middes of the rock ſatte a fayre lady, richely appareyled, with a dolphin in her lap. In this rock were ladies and gentlemen appareled in crimoſyn ſattyn, covered over with floures of purple ſatyn, embroudered with wrethes of gold knit together with golden laces, and on every floure a hart of gold moving. The ladies' tyer † was after the faſhion of Inde, with kerchiefes of pleaſaunce hached ‡ wit fyne gold, and ſet with letters of Greeke in gold of bullion, and the edges of their kerchiefes were garniſhed with hanging perle. Theſe gentlemen and ladyes ſate on the neyther part of the rock, and out of a cave in the ſame rock came ten knightes armed at all poyntes, and faughte together a fayre tournay. And when they were ſevered and departed, the diſguyſers diſſended from the rock and daunced a great ſpace, and ſodeynly the rock moved and receaved the diſguyſers, and immediately cloſed agyan. Then entred a perſon called *Report*, appareled in crymoſyn ſatin full of tongues, ſitting on a flying horſe with wynges and feete of gold called Pegaſus; this perſon in Frenche declared the meaning of the rocks, the trees, and the tourney.'

Among the paſtimes exhibited for the entertainment of queen Eliſabeth during her ſtay at Kenelworth caſtle, Warwickſhire, was a kind of hiſtorical play, or *old ſtorial ſhow*, performed by certain perſons who came for that purpoſe from Coventry. The ſubject of this ſhow was the maſſacre of the Danes, a memorable event in

* The *woodhouſes*, or *wodehouſes*, as they are ſometimes called, were wild or ſavage men; and in this inſtance, men dreſſed up with ſkins, or rugs reſembling ſkins, ſo as to appear like ſavages. Theſe pageants were frequently moveable, and drawn upon wheels. In honour of the marriage of Arthur prince of Wales with Catherine of Spain, there were three pageants exhibited in Weſtminſter-hall, which ſucceeded each other, and were all of them drawn upon wheels: the firſt was a caſtle with ladies; the ſecond a ſhip in full ſail, that caſt anchor near the caſtle; and the third a mountain with ſeveral armed knights upon it, who ſtormed the caſtle, and obliged the ladies to ſurrender. The ſhow ended in a dance, and the pageantry diſappeared. MS. Harl. 69, p. 31.

† Head-dreſs.

‡ *Pleaſaunce* was a fine thin ſpecies of gauze, which was ſtriped with gold.

the Engliſh hiſtory, which was expreſſed 'in action and in rhimes.' It is ſaid to have been annually acted in the town of Coventry, according to ancient cuſtom, but that it was ſuppreſſed ſoon after the reformation, at the inſtance of ſome of their preachers, whoſe good intention the townſpeople did not deny, but complained of their ſeverity, urging in behalf of the ſhow, that it was 'without ill example of manners, papiſtry, or any ſuperſtition.' The rhimes originally belonging to the play, I preſume, were omitted upon the abovementioned occaſion, for it appears to have been performed without any recitation in mere dumb ſhow, and conſiſted of hot ſkirmiſhes and furious encounters between the Engliſh and the Daniſh forces: firſt by the *launce knights* on horſeback, armed with ſpears and ſhields, who being many of them diſmounted, fought with ſwords and targets. Then followed two 'hoſts of footmen,' one after the other; firſt marching in ranks, then turning about in a warlike manner, they changed their form from ranks into ſquadrons, then into triangles, then into rings, and then 'winding out again they joined in battle; twice the Danes had the better, but at the laſt conflict they were beaten down, overcome, and many of them led captive for triumph by our Engliſh women*.'

* Her majeſty was much pleaſed with this performance, 'whereat,' ſays my author, 'ſhe laughed well,' and rewarded the actors with two bucks, and five marks in money; and with this munificence they were highly ſatisfied. Laneham.

## DIRECTIONS *for* TANNING *all Sorts of* HIDES *and* SKIN, *according to the new Proceſs introduced by Mr.* W. Deſmond. *Communicated by the Author to* Alexander Tilloch, *Eſq.**

New Palace-Yard,
SIR, September 26.

I AM flattered to find that you approve of the Directions for Tanning; it is certainly my wiſh that this proceſs ſhould be as generally known and practiſed as poſſible. The extent and ſucceſs with which it is and has been carried on during the laſt three or four years, by ſome of the principal tanners in Warwickſhire, Staffordſhire, and other neighbouring counties, may be ſufficient inducements to all tanners to make the experiment, and convince themſelves, that leather equal, if not ſuperior, in quality to the beſt hitherto known, may be manufactured in about as many days as it generally requires months, to tan it well in the uſual way, and with leſs expences of labour.

Tanners, in beginning the new proceſs, are apt to be ſtartled at the quantity of bark which it *ſeems* to require; but a little reflection and experience ſoon ſatisfy them that, whatever mode they adopt, the ſame quantity of bark is neceſſary to tan a pound, or any given weight of leather, and that the bark is much leſs liable to be waſted, or loſt, in the new than in the ſlovenly old mode: they alſo find that, by proper management, they can give their hides an additional weight, equal, upon an average to ten *per cent.* upon each, more than the uſual way.

A hide, to be properly tanned, muſt have imbibed the quantity of *tanning* neceſſary to ſaturate it; and whether it receive that quantity in one or in eighteen months, it can make no difference in the quality of the leather, but a very material one to the manufacturer.

The opinion that ſo many months were neceſſary to tan hides, was founded on the clumſy and injudicious mode of throwing the hides and bark together in the pits; but this opinion is now rapidly giving way, and probably will, with your aſſiſtance, and that of other ſcientific men, be totally exploded in leſs time than

* From the Philoſophical Magazine, vol. XI.

was hitherto required to tan a hide. Tanners will be much indebted to you for your endeavours to undeceive them; and the public, I think, muſt be ultimately benefited by the general adoption of this proceſs.

I am, &c.

WILLIAM DESMOND.

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DIRECTIONS FOR TANNING.

AS that part of the preparation to hides and ſkins, properly called tanning, conſiſts in impregnating and ſaturating them with a principle obtained from tan, by which they acquire ſtrength and firmneſs, preſerve a ſufficient flexibility, and become indiſſoluble and incorruptible in water either hot or cold; ſo the nature of this proceſs is, 1ſt, To aſcertain, by a ſimple and certain criterion, ſuch ſubſtances as contain the ſaid principle: 2dly, To extract it from them, to ſeparate it from every other principle by which its effect might be impeded or counteracted, and to give it the degree of ſtrength neceſſary for the intended purpoſe: 3dly, To diſpoſe the hides and ſkins for the introduction of this principle: and, 4thly, To impregnate and ſaturate them completely with the ſame in leſs than a tenth part of the time uſually employed in tanning; all which operations are performed in the following manner:

Provide five veſſels, called *digeſters*, of any convenient materials and dimenſions, with an aperture at the bottom of each: let them be placed near each other, and elevated upon ſtillages, or otherwiſe, ſo that a pail or other ſmaller veſſel may be placed under them. Fill the digeſters with tan, that is to ſay, with the bark of certain trees, of oak for inſtance, cut ſmall, bruiſed, or ground to a coarſe powder. Pour water on the tan in the firſt digeſter, where it may ſtand ſome time, or be drawn off immediately. This liquor is to be poured on the tan in the ſecond digeſter, and drawn off as before; then on the tan in the third digeſter, and ſo on until it comes through the tan in the fifth and laſt. The liquor is then highly coloured, and marks from ſix to eight degrees on the hydrometer for ſalts. This liquor is to be uſed for tanning the thickeſt hides; and may, for want of a more characteriſtic name, be called the *tanning lixivium*. It has this peculiar property, that if you take a ſmall quantity of it in a glaſs, and pour on it a few drops of a ſolution of animal glue, the liquor, which before was clear, becomes turbid, and a whitiſh ſubſtance falls to the bottom of the glaſs. The precipitate thus obtained, by the means of the ſolution of glue, is a ſure indication that the liquor contains the tanning principle; for this reaſon, that glue being of the ſame nature with the ſkins, or hides, of which it is made, whatever ſubſtance unites itſelf indiſſolubly with the former, will do ſo likewiſe with the latter.

This ſolution is made by diſſolving a little common glue in water over a moderate fire: by means of it, not only oak bark, but alſo the bark of ſeveral other trees, ſuch as the plane-tree, cheſtnut-tree, the American hemlock-tree, poplar, elm, willow, &c. as well as divers ſhrubs and plants, ſuch as myrtle, ſhumach, &c. all which I call *tan*, are found to contain the tanning principle; and by employing the ſolution as above, it will, in all caſes, be eaſy to aſcertain whether any given ſubſtance contains this principle or not.

In the courſe of theſe lixiviations, two things will be obſerved. 1. The liquor running from the digeſter, at length loſes its colour. If in this ſtate you take a little of it in a glaſs, and repeat the former experiment, the liquor no longer becomes turbid, but remains clear; which ſhows it contains no more of the tanning principle: but if you pour into the ſame glaſs a few drops of a ſolution of ſulphate of iron, the liquor becomes thick and black. This liquor is not to be poured on the tan in the ſecond digeſter, but is to be laid by, and uſed

for the *depilation*, or taking off the hair, or wool, as will be more particularly deſcribed hereafter. It is diſtinguiſhed by the name of *gallic laxivium*, becauſe it appears to contain the ſame principles as galls.

The liquid ſulphate of iron is obtained by diſſolving a ſmall quantity of iron in oil of vitriol diluted with water, or by diſſolving green copper as in water. This ſolution ſerves to aſcertain ſuch ſubſtances as contain the gallic principle. Lime water will alſo produce this effect.

When the liquor ceaſes to grow black by the mixture of the ſulphate of iron, it will be uſeleſs to pour any more water on the tan in the firſt digeſter. This tan, being exhauſted both of the tanning and gallic principles, muſt be removed, and new tan put in its place.

2. You will obſerve that the liquor, after running through all the digeſters, at laſt grows weak. Add to your ſtock of tanning lixivium all the liquor that marks from ſix to eight degrees on the hydrometer. What proceeds afterward from the laſt digeſter is to be poured on the new tan in the firſt. Then the freſh water is to be conveyed on the tan in the ſecond digeſter, and the liquor of the firſt to be laid by, while it marks ſix or eight degrees on the hydrometer, and added to the tanning lixivium, which muſt always be carefully ſeparated from the gallic. In this manner, the tan in all the digeſters may be renewed, and the lixiviations continued.

The number of theſe lixiviations, as well as the mode of making them, may be varied at pleaſure; the eſſential point is to repeat them ſo as to give the liquor a ſufficient degree of concentration, which may be determined by the hydrometer, and proportioned to the quickneſs required in the operation, and the thickneſs of the hides and ſkins to be tanned; all which experience will ſoon teach. As all kinds of tan are not equally good, it will ſometimes happen that ſix or more filtrations will be neceſſary to obtain a lixivium of ſix or eight degrees: in this caſe, as well as where a greater quantity of liquor is required, the number of digeſters is to be increaſed, and the ſame method purſued as above; and when a weaker lixivium is wanted, three or four filtrations will be ſufficient.

The perſon who directs theſe lixiviations ſhould be provided with the ſolution of glue and ſulphate of iron, already deſcribed, in order to aſcertain the qualities of the different lixivia, as well as with a hydrometer or areometer, properly graduated, to determine their degree of concentration or ſpecific gravity.

### COW HIDES, OR HIDES, &c.

1. *Waſhing and Fleſhing.*—They ſhould be waſhed in running water, well cleaned, and fleſhed in the uſual way.

2. *Depilation, or taking off the Hair.*—Immerſe the hides for two or three days in a vat filled with the gallic lixivium, and a mixture of ſulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol, marking 66 degrees on the hydromer for acids, and in the proportion of 1 to 1000; that is, one part of vitriolic acid to a thouſand parts of the lixivium; or 1 pint to 125 gallons. During this immerſion, the hair is detached from the hides in ſuch a manner, that you may eaſily know when they are to be taken out of the vat, that is, when the hair is quite looſe. It is then to be ſcraped off with the round knife on the horſe, or beam.

3. *Raiſing.*—When raiſing is neceſſary, which is ſeldom, if ever, the caſe, immerſe the hides for ten or twelve hours in a vat filled with water, and a five hundredth part of its volume of mineral acid, of the ſame quality as the former, and the operation of raiſing, or ſwelling is done.

4. Waſh the hides repeatedly, and uſe the round knife; then they are fully prepared for tanning.

5. *Tanning.*—The remaining part of the proceſs conſiſts in tanning, pro-

perly ſo called: for which purpoſe, ſteep the hides for ſome hours in a weak lixivium of only one or two degrees; to obtain which you may take that which runs from the ſecond digeſter, or ſome that has been already uſed for tanning. They are then to be put in a ſtronger lixivium, where in a few days they will be brought to the ſame degree of ſaturation with the liquor in which they are immerſed. The ſtrength of the liquor being then conſiderably diminiſhed, it muſt be renewed; and when the hides are completely ſaturated, that is, fully tanned, which is known by cutting off a bit of the edge, remove the leather, and let it dry ſlowly in a ſhady place.

CALF SKINS, GOAT SKINS, &c.

1. Fleſh them with a knife, and work them in running water, like the others.

2. Steep them in lime water, in which there ſhould be more lime than the water can diſſolve at once. What is not diſſolved will ſubſide at the bottom, but muſt be mixed with the water, by ſtirring it ſeveral times a day.

3. After two or three days, remove the ſkins: when the hair is found quite looſe, ſcrape it off on the horſe; waſh and preſs the ſkins well, until the water running from them is perfectly clear, and the lime totally extracted.

4. Steep them firſt in a weak lixivium, then tan them as above; but obſerve, that the tanning lixivium muſt not be near ſo ſtrong as for the hides.

Lime is uſed for theſe ſoft ſkins inſtead of the mixture of gallic lixivium and vitriolic acid, for this reaſon, that the acid always ſwells the leather more or leſs, and becauſe the lime may be more eaſily extracted from them, by waſhing and compreſſing them, than from the thick hides, which when limed are harſh and apt to crack, if the lime is not totally extracted before they are tanned.

Among the different modes of immerſion, which may be practiſed in the courſe of theſe operations, the beſt way ſeems to be that of ſuſpending the hides and ſkins vertically in the lixivia, by means of tranſverſal rods or bars, and at ſuch a diſtance aſunder as not to touch each other in any one point. If they are laid out one over the other, according to the common practice, they will require frequent *handling*, in order that all the parts may be equally ſaturated, and to prevent the folds or plaits that would otherwiſe be formed in them: and this would occaſion a conſiderable loſs of time and labour.

In ſome caſes it will be found expedient to mix freſh tan from time to time with the lixivium; this and other modifications, ſuch as the various ſtrengths of the lixivium, the raiſing or not raiſing the hides, the uſe of the gallic lixivium, &c. which may be found neceſſary, will depend on the ſtate and quality of the hides and ſkins to be tanned, as well as on the purpoſes for which they are intended: all theſe conſiderations muſt be left to the judgment of the manufacturer, but do not in any way alter or change the principle on which this mode of tanning is founded.

Beſide the very great ſavings in point of time and labour, the leather tanned according to the above method, being more completely ſaturated, will be found to weigh heavier, to wear better, and to be leſs ſuſceptible of moiſture, than the leather tanned in the uſual way.

THE following additional explanations may be of uſe to thoſe to whom ſcientific terms and chemical operations are not familiar.

1. Reſpecting the number, the diſpoſition, and the dimenſions of the digeſters. Five or ſix of theſe veſſels are ſufficient to ſhow, by way of experiment, the nature of the proceſs, the different principles contained in the bark, how they are to be diſtinguiſhed and ſeparated from each other, &c. But when the buſineſs is conducted on a permanent and extenſive ſcale, a much greater number will be neceſſary, not only for the pur-

poſe of ſupplying the required quantity of liquor, but alſo for ſpending or completely exhauſting this tan, particularly in cold weather, or if hard water is uſed, and the bark not ground fine enough. I would recommend twelve digeſters at leaſt, fully to anſwer theſe purpoſes.

They may be diſpoſed in four rows of three veſſels each: the two middle rows placed cloſe to each other; the two ſide rows ſeparated from them by a paſſage for a ſmall cart, or wheelbarrow, to fill the digeſters occaſionally with new tan, and to remove it when ſpent. The bottoms of the four front digeſters, or thoſe neareſt the vats, ſhould be ſome inches higher than the edge of the vats, ſo that, when the liquor is ready, it may, by means of a ſhoot, and turning the cock in the digeſter, run of itſelf into the vat where it is wanted. Over each of theſe front digeſters is to be placed a ſecond, projecting a little into it, ſo that, by turning a cock, the liquor may run from the upper into the lower digeſter, without the trouble of pumping; and over the ſecond, a third placed in the ſame manner, and for the ſame purpoſe.

By this diſpoſition of the digeſters, all the labour of pumping is avoided, except from each of the loweſt to the uppermoſt one of the next row. The four inferior digeſters muſt conſequently be provided with an eye each, for the pump to ſtand in when neceſſary.

Beſide the cock, or plug, placed in the part of the ſuperior digeſters which projects into thoſe immediately under them, there muſt be another in the ſide for the purpoſe of conveying the liquor into the vats, when neceſſary, by means of a ſhoot.

As to the dimenſions of theſe veſſels, their depth ſhould not exceed two feet and a half, or three feet at moſt; but they may be as wide as the breadth of the ſhed or building, where they are erected, will admit; and, if large enough to contain half a ton of bark at a time, the better will they anſwer the deſired end. They ſhould be made of wood, and not pitched. Metallic, or brick digeſters, would greatly injure the liquor; no cement, or mortar made of lime, ſhould be uſed in them, becauſe lime deſtroys all the tanning principle with which it comes in contact.

Though theſe obſervations are applicable chiefly where new digeſters of the moſt convenient form are to be erected, yet even in old tan yards, where ſome of the pits already in uſe may be converted into digeſters, their number and depth ſhould be attended to. There ſhould be twelve of them, at leaſt, if poſſible, for the reaſons already aſſigned; that is, for ſupplying the neceſſary quantity of liquor, and completely exhauſting the tan: their depth ſhould not exceed three feet, that the preſſure of too high a column of bark may not prevent the water from diſſolving all its parts equally, and that the tan, by clodding, which it is apt to do, may not prevent the liquor from running. No more water ſhould be poured on the tan than is ſufficient to cover it, and therefore the eyes of theſe ſpenders ſhould be no larger than is abſolutely neceſſary for the pump to ſtand in.

It is ſcarcely neceſſary to add, that the bark as well as the infuſions ſhould be carefully protected from rain, ſnow, and hail, which would injure them materially; and even from the froſt, if poſſible, becauſe the operation of the liquor, when frozen, is totally ſuſpended.

2. Five or ſix days are generally ſufficient for the immerſion of the hides in the ſame vats, as by that time they come to an equilibrium, in point of ſaturation, with the liquor; that is to ſay, they acquire all the ſtrength the liquor can give them. They are then to be ſhifted into a ſtronger infuſion, where they may remain the ſame number of days. In mild weather, if the liquor is of a proper ſtrength, three or four immerſions, of five or ſix days each, will be ſufficient to tan the hides, which in

*Tilbury Fort. Essex.*

the old mode require eighteen or twenty months to be completely tanned. To keep them longer in the ſame liquor would be ſo much time loſt, as in making the infuſions it would be a loſs of time to let the liquor ſtand more than a couple of hours on the ſame tan. It is not the length of time during which the ſame water ſtands on the bark, but the number of waterings, that will completely ſeparate the tanning principle from it. As the heavieſt and beſt part of the liquor always falls to the bottom of the vats, it ſhould be ſtirred up from time to time.

3. The uſe of the ſolution of glue ſhould not be neglected. Since this ſolution has been made known as a teſt for aſcertaining the preſence of the tanning principle in the infuſions of different kinds of bark, a great variety of them have been already found, and many others may yet be diſcovered, to be excellent ſubſtitutes for oak bark; and in proportion as their uſe becomes general, it will neceſſarily lower the preſent high price of the latter article, and ſave many young oaks.

Among the barks already found, by means of this teſt, to contain the tanning principle in a greater or leſs proportion, the principal are thoſe of the following trees, viz. willow, aſh, hazel, Spaniſh cheſtnut, poplar, ſallow, cherry-tree, birch, ſycamore, plum-tree, beech, and elder.

4. In tan yards where there is not a ſufficient body of running water for ſoaking and waſhing the ſkins, in order to extract the lime from them, the preſent mode of extracting it in grainers, by means of pigeon's dung, hen's dung, or other alkaline ſubſtances, may be continued; but the ſkins ſhould never be put into the ſame liquor in which hides unhaired with the gallic and vitriolic acids have been tanned. The uſe of theſe acids is not abſolutely neceſſary either to ſhorten the time or produce good leather, but when uſed will be found to add conſiderably to its weight.

5. By means of the hydrometer the comparative value of all ſorts of bark may be eaſily determined. For this purpoſe, take equal quantities of the barks to be compared; infuſe them the ſame number of times in equal quantities of water, and the hydrometer will ſhow their relative ſtrength and value.

## *AN ACCOUNT OF TILBURY FORT.*

*With a perſpective View of that important Fortreſs.*

TILBURY FORT is ſituate in the pariſh of Weſt Tilbury, oppoſite Graveſend; it is a very regular fortification, and may be termed the key of London. The plan was laid by ſir Martin Beckman, chief engineer to Charles II. It was intended to be a pentagon, but the water baſtion was never built. The eſplanade is very large, and the baſtions, which are faced with brick, are ſaid to be the largeſt in England. It has a double moat, the innermoſt of which is one hundred and eighty feet broad; with a good counterſcarp, a covered way, ravelins and tenails.

On the land ſide are two ſmall redoubts of brick; but its chief ſtrength on that ſide, conſiſts in its being able to lay the whole level under water. On the ſide next the river, is a ſtrong curtain, with a noble gate, called the water gate, in the middle; and the ditch is paliſaded. Before this curtain is a platform in the place of a counterſcarp, on which are planted one hundred and ſix guns, from twenty-four to forty-ſix pounders each, beſide ſmaller ones planted between them; and the baſtions and curtains are alſo planted with guns. Here likewiſe is a high tower called the Block houſe, ſaid to have been built in the reign of queen Eliſabeth.

The mention of this illuſtrious princeſs, naturally reminds us of the diſ-

play ſhe made, near this place, of her heroic ſpirit —'The more,' ſays Hume, 'to excite the martial ſpirit of the nation (threatened by the famous Spaniſh Armada) the queen appeared on horſeback in the camp at Tilbury; and riding through the lines, diſcovered a cheerful and animated countenance, exhorted the ſoldiers to remember their duty to their country and their religion, and profeſſed her intention, though a woman, to lead them herſelf into the field againſt the enemy, and rather to periſh in battle than ſurvive the ruin and ſlavery of her people. By this ſpirited behaviour ſhe revived the tenderneſs and admiration of the ſoldiery: an attachment to her perſon, became a kind of enthuſiaſm among them: and they aſked one another, whether it were poſſible that Engliſhmen could abandon this glorious cauſe, could diſplay leſs fortitude than appeared in the female ſex, or could ever by any dangers be induced to relinquiſh the defence of their heroic princeſs?'

To this honourable teſtimony of the hiſtorian, it may not be improper to ſubjoin the ſpeech her majeſty made. The dangers we have more recently warded off, may render agreeable this ſpecimen of true Engliſh courage, which we truſt will ever be found, in the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover.

'My loving people,

'We have been perſuaded by ſome, that are careful of our ſafety, to take heed how we commit ourſelves to armed multitudes, for fear of treachery; but I aſſure you, I do not deſire to live to diſtruſt my faithful and loving people. Let tyrants fear: I have always ſo behaved myſelf, that, under God, I have placed my chiefeſt ſtrength and ſafeguard in the loyal hearts and goodwill of my ſubjects. And therefore I am come among you at this time, not as for my recreation or ſport, but being reſolved, in the midſt and heat of the battle, to live or die among you all: to lay down, for my God, and for my kingdom, and for my people, my honour and my blood, even in the duſt. I know I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and a king of England too; and think foul ſcorn that Parma or Spain, or any prince of Europe, ſhould dare to invade the borders of my realms: to which, rather than any diſhonour ſhould grow by me, I myſelf will take up arms; I myſelf will be your general, judge, and rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field. I know already, by your forwardneſs, that you have deſerved rewards and crowns; and we do aſſure you, on the word of a prince, they ſhall be duly paid you. In the mean time, my lieutenant-general ſhall be in my ſtead, than whom never prince commanded a more noble and worthy ſubject; not doubting by your obedience to my general, by your concord in the camp, and your valour in the field, we ſhall ſhortly have a famous victory over thoſe enemies of my God, of my kingdom, and of my people.'

This camp, which was ſituate where the windmill is, and of which there are ſome traces ſtill viſible, conſiſted of twenty-two thouſand foot, and fifteen hundred horſe, under the command of Robert Dudley, earl of Leiceſter.

Weſt Tilbury is an ancient town, but has little now worthy of notice. Here the four Roman proconſular ways croſſed each other, and in the year 630, this was the ſee of biſhop Ceadda, or St. Chad, who converted the Eaſt Saxons. It is ſituate by the marſhes, which are rented by the farmers and grazing butchers of London, who generally ſtock them with Lincolnſhire and Leiceſterſhire wethers, which are ſent hither from Smithfield in September and October, and fed here till Chriſtmas or Candlemas; and this is what the butchers call right marſh mutton. In this pariſh is a celebrated ſpring alterative water, diſcovered in 1717.

## METHOD *of* EDUCATING *the* DEAF *and* DUMB:

[*By the* ABBE DE L'EPEE.—*Tranſlated from the French and Latin.*]

THE TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE.

FEW are the inſtructors of the deaf and dumb of whom there is any accounts, and of the very few publications which have at any time been given to the world, in order to promote their tuition, it is now not eaſy to meet with one.

Of former inſtructors, he who ſeems to have obtained greateſt notice was Bonet, a prieſt, ſecretary to the conſtable of Caſtile, whoſe younger brother had loſt the ſenſe of hearing when two years old. The difficulty of procuring inſtruction for him creating much diſtreſs in the family, Bonet, qualified for the province of tuition by great knowledge and uncommon learning, undertook the care of his education; in which he ſucceeded beyond every hope. The ſyſtem that he formed on the occaſion was printed at Madrid, in 1620, under the title of 'Reduction de las Letras, y Arte para enſenar á hablar los Mudos,' dedicated to Philip III, and accompanied, according to the cuſtom of the age, with encomiums in verſe and proſe from poets and philoſophers. The author is ſaid to have been afterward in the ſervice of the prince of Carignan, and to have continued many years to teach perſons to whom the misfortune of deafneſs made his leſſons needful. When Dr. Johnſon mentions the inſtruction of the deaf and dumb as having been firſt practiſed on the ſon of a conſtable of Spain, he muſt allude to Bonet as the teacher.

We are able to trace this inſtruction ſomewhat higher, however. It was exerciſed in the ſame country by Peter Ponce, a Benedictine monk, toward the end of the ſixteenth century. He has publiſhed nothing; but his complete ſucceſs is particularly related by two of his friends and countrymen, who had ſeen his ſcholars; by Valleſius, in a Latin work of great reputation, 'De Sacrâ Philoſophiâ,' 'Concerning the Philoſophy contained in the Scriptures;' and by Antonio Perez, a prieſt of his own order, in a Spaniſh work.

The tuition of the deaf was alſo conſidered by ab Helmont, a German, in a very ingenious publication, entitled 'Alphabeti vere Naturalis Hebraici breviſſima Delineatio,' 'A brief Delineation of the truly natural Hebraic Alphabet,' printed at Salzburgh, in 1657; in which the author mentions the trial of his ſkill upon one pupil only, who became maſter of his vernacular tongue very expeditiouſly, and acquired the Hebrew of himſelf.

About 1690, Amman, a Swiſs phyſician of eminent abilities and extenſive erudition, who was then recently returned to his native country from Holland, was induced to migrate a ſecond time at the ſolicitation of a friend at Haerlem, to give inſtruction to an only daughter, a beautiful girl, born deaf. His ſucceſs with her was rapid and complete; and he afterward undertook the tuition of others having the ſame infirmity. In 1692, he publiſhed a ſmall treatiſe upon the ſubject in Latin, under the title of 'Surdus Loquens,' dedicated to Peter Kolard, the father of the young lady his firſt pupil, whoſe caſe had given riſe to the compoſition. An enlarged edition of it appeared in 1700, with the title of 'Diſſertatio de Loquelâ,' and dedicated to a magiſtrate of Amſterdam. Wallis, whoſe depth of ſcience and acuteneſs of intellect had led him early to pronounce, on ſpeculation, the practicability of teaching the deaf to ſpeak, was prevailed upon, ſeven or eight years after, to verify his theory in the tuition of Mr. Whalley, a young gentleman of Northampton, deaf and dumb from his birth. Having fully ſucceeded in the firſt eſſay of his ſkill, he made a ſecond with the ſon of admiral Popham; and

was afterward employed in the inſtruction of the deaf and dumb pupils without teaching them to ſpeak. In hi grammar in the Engliſh language, compoſed of Latin with a view of extending the knowledge of it to foreign nations, he has given 'Tractatus Proœmialis de Loquelâ, ſive Literarum omnium Formatione et genuino Sono,' 'An introductory Treatiſe On Speech, or on the Formation and genuine Sound of all Letters;' which, though not publiſhed with the immediate or primary deſign of ſhowing how the deaf might be brought to articulate, was, however, well calculated for that purpoſe, and accordingly referred to him in a ſubſeqent tract, 'Concerning his Method of inſtructing Perſons Deaf and Dumb.' The firſt edition of the grammar was in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1698.

In recent times this art has been exerciſed in Paris, by father Vanin and Mr. Perreire; in Leipſick, by Mr. Heinich; in London, by Mr. Baker; and in Edinburgh, by Mr. Braidwood.

By a contingency, ſuch as deſtines multitudes to particular ſtudies or avocations, the Abbé de l'Epée engaged in it. Vanin had under his tuition two young ladies, who were twin ſiſters, both having the misfortune of deafneſs and dumbneſs. Death ſoon deprived them of his leſſons; and as an inſtructor to ſupply his place was ſought for in vain, the Abbé de l'Epée undertook to continue their education. The contemplation of their condition excited his tenderneſs, and his tenderneſs inflamed his philanthropy toward all in the ſame afflicting circumſtances. His mind thus turned to the ſubject, was, by degrees, wholly abſorbed in it; till, at laſt, incited by religion and humanity, he dedicated himſelf entirely to their tuition. He inſtituted a ſeminary in which he received as many of the deaf and dumb as he could ſuperintend, and he formed preceptors to teach thoſe in diſtant parts. The number of his ſcholars grew to upward of ſixty; and, as the fame of his operations extended, perſons from Germany, from Switzerland, from Spain, and from Holland, came to Paris to be initiated in the method he practiſed, and transfer it to their ſeveral countries.

As no one had more attentively conſidered, or was ever more fully engaged in the education of the deaf and dumb, he was induced, like Bonet and other precurſors in the art, to write and to publiſh concerning it.

In his work he communicated to the world a mean that he had deviſed as a ſubſtitute for the agency of hearing in the conveyance of ideas; an invention which he claims entirely as his own, being no leſs than that of a *new language by ſigns*, minutely accurate and copiouſly extenſive; comprehending the expreſſion of every term or idea given by any vocal tongue. When the theory of this new language was preſented, it was no longer a mere ſpeculative hypotheſis, but an actual ſyſtem already reduced to practice, ſerving all the offices of oral ſpeech; and as ſuch, in common daily uſe with the Abbé and his pupils, and with the diſciples of the Abbé and their pupils.

Genius ever exerciſing itſelf in improvements, diſcoveries, and inventions, its productions are almoſt univerſally obnoxious at their origin, as they diſturb the tranquillity of dulneſs and ignorance, contradict prejudice, or alarm intereſt. Theſe were inſtantly in a ferment on the publication of the Abbé de l'Epée's contrivance. Some combated the utility of it; and others, in defiance of poſitive evidence, and demonſtration, and fact, denied its practicability.

Curioſity, now awakened, will be ready to demand ſome particulars of one whoſe genius and whoſe labours place him among the illuſtrious benefactors of mankind: but, unleſs in tranſitory ſheets preſerved only by accident, in local works not eaſily conſulted, or in recent publications which there has been no opportunity to ob-

tain, no biography nor notice of the Abbé de l'Epée is to be found (with a ſingle exception) beſide what is furniſhed by his own volume, here tranſlated, and the hiſtorical drama of which he is the hero, lately produced in France by monſ. de Bouilly. Thus it is poſſible, that he whom France acknowledges as the greateſt character ſhe has yet produced, might have ſunk in the ſtream of oblivion, but for the caſual glance of a poet, to whom a law record * ſuggeſted the idea of exhibiting him on the ſtage. But if any thing can expiate this neglect, the national honour muſt be redeemed by the eulogy beſtowed upon him, which has ſuddenly diffuſed his fame to ſurrounding nations: an eulogy ſo ſublime it will not be eaſy to equal, nor poſſible to ſurpaſs.

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THE MANNER IN WHICH THE INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB IS TO COMMENCE.

It is not by the mere pronunciation of words, in any language, that we are taught their ſignification. The words *door*, *windows*, &c. &c. in our own, might have been repeated to us hundreds of times in vain; we ſhould never have attached an idea to them, had not the objects deſignated by theſe names been ſhown to us at the ſame time. A ſign of the hand or of the eye has been the ſole mean by which we learned to unite the idea of theſe objects with the ſounds that ſtruck our ear. Whenever we heard theſe ſounds, the ſame ideas aroſe in our minds, becauſe we recollected the ſigns made to us when they were pronounced.

Exactly ſimilar muſt be our meaſures with the deaf and dumb. Their tuition commences with teaching them a manual alphabet, ſuch as boys at ſchool make uſe of to hold converſation at one end of a form with their companions at the other. The various figures of theſe letters ſtrike forcibly the eyes of deaf and dumb perſons, who no more confound them, than we confound the various ſounds that ſtrike our ears.

We next write (I ſay *we*, becauſe in the operations with my deaf and dumb pupils, I frequently have aſſiſtance) in large characters with a white crayon, upon a black table, theſe two words, *the door*, and we ſhow them the door. They immediately apply their manual alphabet five or ſix times to each of the letters compoſing the word *door* (they ſpell it with their fingers) and impreſs on their memory the number of letters and arrangement of them; this done, they efface the word, and taking the crayon themſelves, write it down in characters, no matter whether well or ill formed; afterward they will write it, as often as you ſhow them the ſame object.

It will be the ſame with reſpect to every thing elſe pointed out to them, the name being previouſly written down; which being firſt done on the table, in large characters, may afterward be inſcribed in characters of ordinary ſize, upon different cards; and theſe being given to them, they amuſe themſelves in examining one another's proficiency, and ridicule thoſe that blunder. Experience has manifeſted that a deaf and dumb perſon poſſeſſing any mental powers will acquire by this method upward of eighty words in leſs than three days.

Take ſome cards, having ſuitable inſcriptions, and deliver them one by one to your pupil; he will carry his hand ſucceſſively to every part of his body conformably to the name on the card delivered to him. Mix and ſhuffle the cards as you pleaſe, he will make no miſtake; or if you chooſe to write down any of theſe names on the table, you will ſee him, in like manner, diſtinguiſh with his finger every object whoſe name is ſo offered him; and thus clearly prove, that he comprehends the meaning of every one.

By this proceſs, the pupil will obtain, in a very few days, a knowledge of all the words which expreſs the different parts of our frame, from head

* Cauſes Celebres.

to foot, as well as of thoſe that expreſs the various objects which ſurround us, on being properly pointed out to him, as you write their names down on the table, or on cards put into his hands.

## HOW THE DEAF AND DUMB MAY BE BROUGHT TO UNDERSTAND, IN SOME MEASURE, WHAT IT IS TO HEAR, AURIBUS AUDIRE.

In attempting to explain this article to the deaf and dumb, I go to work as follows;

I direct a large pan to be brought, and order it to be filled with water. The water being perfectly ſettled, I take an ivory ball, or ſomething ſimilar, and drop it perpendicularly in. I make my pupil obſerve the undulation produced in the water, which would be much greater in a pond or in a river: but the deaf and dumb having ſeen this undulatory motion in both, call it to mind very eaſily. Then I write down as follows: 'I drop the ball into the water; the water being diſplaced, runs up and ſtrikes the edge of the pan.' Not a word of this is unintelligible to my pupils.

Next I take up a ſcreen, or ſomething ſimilar, and flapping it in my hand, the curtains flutter, and leaves of paper fly about. I blow upon the hands of one of my pupils with my mouth; and I call all that *air*. Then I write down further: 'The room is full of *air*, as the pan is full of water: I ſtrike upon the table, the air is diſplaced and ſtrikes againſt the walls of the room, in the ſame manner as the water is diſplaced, and ſtrikes againſt the edges of the pan.'

I now take out my alarum watch, and ſetting it properly, I make each of my pupils feel the little hammer which ſtrikes againſt his finger with great rapidity. I then tell him that we have all a little hammer in the ear; that the air being diſplaced in making its way toward the walls of the room, meets with our ear, which it enters, and cauſes the little hammer there to move in the ſame way that I make the corner of my handkerchief move with my breath. (This is the language I hold with them, and I think it right not to alter it here.) After this, I get a perſon who hears, to ſtand with his face againſt the wall, and his back toward me, requeſting him to turn round, and come forward as ſoon as he hears me ſtrike upon the table. I ſtrike; and the reſt is executed as agreed upon. I ſhow that the air met with his ear, and having entered it, cauſed his little hammer to move, the ſenſation of which made him turn round, and come forward.

I afterward ſend the ſame perſon into another room: I ſtrike, and he comes back directly. I declare that the ſame operation has taken place in his ear, and ſerved him for a ſignal to come back. It is thus we ſhow that ſound is propagated by means of undulating air (we explain alſo why this propagation is ſlower than that of light). As to what really takes place in the interior of the ear, anatomiſts will pleaſe to recollect that we are addreſſing ourſelves to perſons who are deaf and dumb, conſequently that phyſical exactneſs is out of the caſe.

We now inform our ſtudents, that if they do not hear, it is becauſe they have not in their ears this hammer; or elſe becauſe it is too much enveloped for the motion of the air to make an impreſſion; or, laſtly, becauſe, if it does move and ſtrike, the part upon which it acts is, in a manner, paralytic.

The explications I have given at various times on this ſubject, have produced very different effects upon different pupils; ſome being highly gratified at knowing what it is to hear, others profoundly dejected at not having the hammer in their ears, or at its being enveloped. The firſt two that attended this lecture, having given an account of it at home, could not ſuppreſs their chagrin, upon learning that the houſe-cat and canary-bird had both the little hammer in their ears.

From the above, it will be eaſy to

gueſs the notion which the deaf and dumb form reſpecting our faculty of hearing.

When all my ſcholars are in my ſtudy, their whole attention engroſſed by a picture which they have not ſeen before, if I ſtamp on the floor, every one, without exception, whatever their number, immediately turns round; the pulſation they feel at their feet being a ſufficient notice, that I deſire them to look toward me.

A few minutes after, I let them know that twenty perſons are in my antichamber, who cannot perceive me, nor I them, whom, nevertheleſs, I ſhall cauſe to enter, that they may have the pleaſure of looking at the ſame picture. I call them aloud, and they enter immediately. The deaf and dumb comprehend that theſe perſons have experienced a vibration in the ear ſomething ſimilar to what they themſelves felt at the feet when I ſtamped upon the floor.

The faculty of hearing, therefore, appears to them, an internal diſpoſition of our ears, rendering us capable of ſenſations there, of which their own ears are incapable, becauſe the door is ſhut ſo as to prevent the air from penetrating, or becauſe they are without the little hammer to ſtrike, or without the drum which it is to ſtrike upon: and as they perceive that the ſtamping of the foot on the floor produces more or leſs motion at their feet, in proportion to the force of the ſtroke, ſo they conceive that the motion produced in our ears is more or leſs felt in proportion to the degree of violence with which the air enters: they have nearly the ſame idea of it as of the wind blowing with more or leſs ſtrength.

But as we can give no diſtinct idea of the difference of colours to a perſon born blind, neither can we give the deaf and dumb a diſtinct idea of the difference of ſounds produced in our ears by the different articulation of letters.

## *On the* ATTRACTIVE POWER *of* BODIES FLOATING *on* WATER.

[By Dr. G. Carradori.]

IF a few ſmall dry bodies, ſuch as bits of dry leaves or ſaw-duſt, be thrown into water, and immerſed at about the diſtance of an inch under each other, during the time of immerſion, you will ſee the bodies ſeparate themſelves a little from each other, owing, as may be readily conceived, to the effects of the motion occaſioned by immerſing them in the fluid. If you then bring one of theſe bodies near to another, the latter will every where follow the other, whether you immerſe it deeper, raiſe it above the water, or move it horizontally; and both bodies will hang to each other, and thus exerciſe a kind of attractive force. This, however, is not the effect of the reciprocal attraction of the bodies; for, in the firſt caſe, that is, when you immerſe the one body deeper, the other will endeavour to approach it, becauſe a cavity or circular vacuity is produced, in which it muſt then follow the current; and the cauſe of this is, that the coheſive power of the water is not ſo ſtrong as the attraction which it exerciſes over that body, and therefore its ſurface always yields more, and, keeping behind the body, puſhes it forward, and, as it were, ſwallows it up. This phenomenon is exhibited by all floating bodies which attract the water; for they follow the ſame movement, which, according to the adheſion which it has with the body, either riſes upward or ſinks down.

As it has been obſerved, that all bodies which contain a certain volatile or fixed oil, or reſin, have an extenſive power, whether they be fluid or hard, and, in the laſt caſe, that they fall into duſt as ſoon as they are applied to the ſurface of the water, I am of opinion, that all ſubſtances which exhibit ſuch a phenomenon contain a common oil, or reſin, which gives riſe to it. I will not here men-

tion that ſeries of bodies, all of an oily or reſinous nature, with which I made experiments; but I can aſſert, that they all produced this effect in a greater or leſs degree. Milk, for example, which, as every one knows, is an expreſſed juice, extends itſelf upon water, as well as the milky juice of the tithymalus, and other plants of the like kind, though viſibly with leſs force; and therefore, there is no reaſon to doubt, that the farina of fruits and other ſeeds, is of the ſame nature as an expreſſed juice, as, both in a hard and fluid ſtate, it extends itſelf on the water in the ſame manner as the milky juice of plants. The cauſe of the greater velocity with which farina ſpreads itſelf on water than milk, and the milky juice of plants, ought, in my opinion, to be aſcribed, without all doubt, to the reſinous parts which form a difference between it and milk, as the latter contains a fixed oil. This is the caſe not only in regard to common meal, but alſo in regard to the tuberous roots, all the graſſes, and, in general, all plants; and beſide theſe, the farina of a great number of ſeeds of various kinds, both inflammable and incombuſtible, with which I made experiments: mealy fruits have this property in an eminent degree; and on this account we have reaſon to aſſert, that all of them have a ſuperabundance of reſinous particles, and that they muſt afford nouriſhing food. There is reaſon to believe, that the reſinous part of corn, or fruit, conſiſts in the gelatine, and, therefore, I imagined that ſtarch, as a kind of mucilage, muſt be deprived of its property of extending itſelf in water; but it, however, poſſeſſes that property, though in a leſs degree than meal. We cannot, therefore, refuſe to admit in it a reſinous ſubſtance alſo. It muſt, however, be a ſubſtance more mucilaginous than gelatine itſelf, or reſin; and we muſt aſcribe the difference of theſe two ſubſtances to the proportion of this principle, and, perhaps alſo to its different combinations.

Real gum, when divided into as ſmall particles as poſſible, has an extenſive movement on the ſurface of the water alſo. I, therefore, conſider gum, reſinous gum, and reſin, to be almoſt degrees of one and the ſame ſubſtance.

When I was making experiments of this kind with different ſubſtances, a thought ſtruck me, to pound a piece of bread, made of dry grain, and to make experiments with it alſo, in order to aſcertain, whether it ſtill retained the property of meal, and I found that it ſtill exhibited the ſame phenomenon. This induced me to conclude, that the reſinous part of meal is deſtroyed neither by fermentation nor the proceſs of baking.

Before I quit this ſubject, it may not be ſuperfluous, to inform thoſe who may wiſh to make experiments of this ſort, particularly with a view to diſcover thoſe ſubſtances which contain oil or reſin, what cautions muſt be uſed to prevent them from falling into errors. Their firſt care, then, ought to be, that the water on which the ſubſtance with which they mean to make their experiments is thrown, may have a large ſurface, and the experiment will be deciſive when it is performed in a veſſel into which the water flows and runs out, or in a river or pond.

If the experiment be made in a veſſel filled with water, oily impurities may eaſily adhere to the ſides of it, and thus prevent the effect, as they will occupy the ſurface of the water.

Care muſt be taken alſo, that no oily ſubſtance, of whatever nature, may have been previouſly adhering to the veſſel; for, in that caſe, the experiment would fail.

The evaporation of the body may alſo occaſion deception. I have myſelf obſerved, that when the hand is rubbed under the armpits, over the forehead, or on any other part of the body from which more oily evaporation proceeds than from others, and if a piece of earth be taken in this hand and placed on the water,

an extenſive movement immediately takes place. The ſame thing may happen, if the ſubſtance with which the experiment is made be held a long time in the hand. It is therefore neceſſary to waſh the hands, and, after they have been well dried, to proceed to the experiment by throwing the ſubſtance on the water from a ſmall ſpoon. It may thence be readily conceived what errors may ariſe if all theſe precautionary rules are not obſerved.

## THEATRE.

A NEW Comedy by Mr. Reynolds, called FOLLY AS IT FLIES, was repreſented, for the firſt time, at Covent-garden theatre, October 30.

DRAMATIS PERSONÆ.

Sir Herbert Melmoth, Mr. Murray; Leonard Melmoth, Mr. H. Johnſton; Tom Tick, Mr. Lewis; Peter Poſt Obit, Mr. Munden; Shenkin, Mr. Knight; Dr. Infallible, Mr. Simmons; Malcour, Mr. Whitfield; Curſitor, Mr. Waddy. Georgiana, Mrs. Gibbs; lady Melmoth, Miſs Murray.

The ſcene lies in London.—The ſerious part of this comedy ariſes from the extravagance of lady Melmoth, the ſecond wife of ſir Herbert, and who had been his ward. By indulging in every faſhionable exceſs ſhe had induced her huſband to ſquander away all his property, and his only reſource for paying his debts and ſupporting her expences, is to perſuade his ſon Leonard, the iſſue of his firſt marriage, to conſent to cut off the entail of the family eſtate. Leonard, a gallant naval officer, is ſo affectionate a ſon, that he is readily diſpoſed to aſſent to this deſperate propoſal, but is perſuaded to refuſe it by Georgiana, his father's ward, between whom and Leonard a tender attachment prevails. Leonard, therefore, inſtead of complying, expoſtulates with his father, and the latter conſidering the refuſal as the reſult of ſelfiſh artifice, diſmiſſes his ſon in anger. At length creditors ſeize on the whole of ſir Herbert's property, and he is obliged to ſecret himſelf. Lady Melmoth, under all her faſhionable extravagance, poſſeſſes an excellent heart, and is brought by diſtreſs to the moſt agonizing remorſe. It appears that, in an interview between ſir Herbert and Leonard, the former, with a piſtol in his hand, had threatened to diſpatch himſelf rather than avail himſelf of his ſon's conſent to cut off the entail on the condition of parting with lady Melmoth. Leonard, apprehenſive of deſperate conſequences, endeavoured to get hold of the piſtol, but in the ſtruggle it is diſcharged upon himſelf. This event gives encouragement to Malcour, an inſidious friend of Leonard, and who had been a former lover of lady Melmoth, to hope that his diſhonourable views on her would ſucceed. He therefore reſolves in caſe Leonard, who is ſaid to be in extreme danger, ſhould die, to accuſe his father of the murder, unleſs lady Melmoth will liſten to his licentious addreſſes. Sir Herbert, in the agonies of parental affection and remorſe, determines to ſee his ſon, who is at Malcour's houſe, and obtains admiſſion in the abſence of Malcour, who had ordered his ſervants to admit nobody to Leonard's apartment. Sir Herbert, however, prevails upon the attendant to let him paſs. Lady Herbert alſo goes to Malcour's houſe, to expreſs her contrition to Leonard before he dies, but is unfortunately encountered by Malcour, who urges his diſhonourable ſuit, but is rejected with horror. Lady Herbert faints on the ſpot, oppreſſed by the exaggerated recital of Malcour, imparting the death of Leonard, and the probable conviction of her huſband. At this period ſir Herbert and Leonard appear, detect the perfidy of Malcour, and witneſs the virtuous affliction of the lady. Leonard, who had been only ſlightly wounded in the arm; now readily offers to relieve his father from his diſtreſſes, by conſenting to the legal ſacrifice required of him, and the proſpect of the future is happineſs.

The humorous part of this production relates to Tom Tick, a pleaſant fellow, who is always running in debt, and engaged in ſome generous enterpriſe; Peter Poſt Obit, a legacy-hunter; Dr. Infallible, an advertiſing quack; and Caractacus Shenkin, a ſimple Welchman, proud of his pedigree, but content to aſſume a livery.

This piece is full as eccentric as any of the former works of its author, and not leſs amuſing. Its ſerious and comic incidents, all tend to ſupport the intereſts of virtue, to diſcountenance vice, and to 'ſhoot Folly as it Flies.'

The piece was announced for repetition with the warm approbation of a numerous audience.

## *IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.*

### HOUSE OF LORDS.

Thurſday, October 29.

HIS majeſty came down to the houſe in the uſual ſtate, and the commons being in attendance below the bar, he delivered his gracious ſpeech from the throne. [See our Magazine for October page 307.]

His majeſty's ſpeech being read by the lord chancellor and the clerk at the table,

Lord Bolton roſe. He ſaid, the bleſſings to be derived from peace infuſed themſelves into the mind, and inſpired every heart with tranſport at its reſtoration; and he therefore felt anxious to expreſs his gratitude for the gracious ſpeech which they had juſt heard delivered from the throne; the particular points of which his lordſhip then proceeded to expatiate upon, and from thence drew a concluſion, that this was the moſt proper moment that could have been choſen for putting an end to the war, for the brilliant atchievements of our army and navy, during the laſt campaign, muſt have convinced Europe at large what Britiſh arms of themſelves were able to perform, for they had reaped glory in all parts of the world, from the frigid zone to the pillars of Hercules, and from the pillars of Hercules to the extent of Africa; and from this their glory ſhould we find our beſt and moſt certain ſecurity. His lordſhip entered into a panegyric upon the ſervices of ſome of our commanders, alluding particularly to lord Nelſon and general Hutchinſon, and then concluded by moving an humble addreſs to his majeſty, which was little more than a ſlight alteration of the ſpeech.

Lord Lifford ſeconded the motion for the addreſs.

The queſtion upon the addreſs was put, and carried without a diviſion.

Friday, October 30.

The houſe being acquainted that his majeſty would this day be pleaſed to receive their addreſs, the lord chancellor, with ſeveral of their lordſhips, proceeded to St. James' with the ſame. About half paſt three, their lordſhips returned, and the houſe being reſumed,

Lord Pelham ſaid, that he had it in command from his majeſty to lay before the houſe copies of the convention which had been entered into between his majeſty and the Northern powers; and alſo copies of the preliminaries of peace, which had been ſigned between his majeſty and the republic of France: which his lordſhip then preſented, and they were ſeverally ordered to lie upon the table. His lordſhip then moved, that they ſhould be taken into conſideration on Tueſday next, and the houſe be ſummoned.—Ordered.

Lord St. Vincent ſaid, he had to call their lordſhip's attention to the exploits of as brave and gallant an officer as any the country could boaſt of. He alluded to ſir James Saumarez, bart. for his gallantry on the 12th of July, in attacking the French ſquadron, and alſo for the very great and almoſt unexampled exertions he afterward made to refit his ſhips, ſo as to be enabled on the next day to renew the engagement with the combined force of France and Spain, in the Straits of Gibraltar, in which the former loſt one ſhip of the line, and the latter two firſt rates; and concluded by moving, That their lordſhips ſhould reſolve that the thanks of that houſe ſhould be given to him for thoſe meritorious ſervices.

Lord Nelſon alſo bore his teſtimony to the merit and bravery of ſir James. He commended the attack for being as bold as ever was meditated; and would pledge himſelf that, if it had not been for a failure of the wind, that gallant admiral would certainly have carried the French ſhips into Gibraltar.

The reſolutions were then put and agreed to; as were alſo one to thank the captains and officers, and another the ſailors and marines, who ſerved upon that occaſion. The reſolutions were ordered to be tranſmitted by the lord chancellor.—Adjourned to Tueſday.

Tueſday, November 3.

After a deſultory converſation reſpecting a point of order, which laſted for nearly two hours, the order of the day was read, for taking into conſideration the

PRELIMINARY ARTICLES OF PEACE.

Lord Romney roſe, and ſaid, that feeling as he did for the ſituation of the country, after ſo long a continuance of the extraordinary and eventful conteſt in which we had lately been engaged, it was with the higheſt ſatisfaction that he now ſtood forward to addreſs their lordſhips on the ſubject of the preliminary articles of peace, and to move an addreſs of thanks to his majeſty for his moſt gracious communication of the ſame to their lordſhips. In entering upon a ſubject of this magnitude and importance, he found it neceſſary for him to remind their lordſhips, that the late

war was a war of defence only, and it was neceſſary to keep that always in their contemplation, in order to form a fair and candid concluſion as to the terms and propriety of making peace at the time in which it had been concluded. He expreſſed his decided opinion, that the war was juſt and neceſſary from its commencement; and that in the mode of conducting it his majeſty's late miniſters had his warmeſt approbation. He inſiſted that this country had never carried on a more ſucceſsful war, nor one in which the exertions, courage, and intrepidity of our ſeamen and ſoldiers had ever been crowned with more ſplendour. At the ſame time that he deemed it his duty to pay this grateful tribute to our brave defenders by ſea and land, he could not omit to do juſtice to that great body of men, the country gentlemen, who had cheerfully borne the privation of all luxuries, and had long been reduced even to the mere comforts of life; nor had he the ſmalleſt doubt had the conteſt ſtill continued, they would have bowed ſubmiſſive to the imperious neceſſity of ſtill patiently bearing all thoſe ſevere burdens which had been drawn on them by a war undertaken for the preſervation of our religion, laws, liberties, and conſtitution. Having compared the preſent peace with former treaties, he moved 'That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, humbly thanking him for his gracious condeſcenſion in ordering the preliminary articles of peace to be laid before their lordſhips; and to aſſure his majeſty that their lordſhips would give them that full and mature deliberation due to their magnitude and importance; and that their lordſhips would be happy to give every cooperation to his majeſty's efforts to carry the ſame into full and complete effect.'

Lord Limerick ſeconded the motion. His lordſhip entered nearly into the ſame field of argument uſed by the noble mover of the reſolution; paid the warmeſt eulogy to the courage and intrepidity of our ſeamen and ſoldiers, and to the ſkill and heroiſm of our officers by ſea and land; and warmly recommended to his majeſty's ſervants to keep up a ſtrong peace eſtabliſhment, not for fear of the French, but to guard againſt any evil minded attempt of the enemies of the country at home.

Earl Spencer expreſſed great reluctance at being obliged to give his negative to the preſent motion; but could not, conſiſtently with the part he had taken in the laſt adminiſtration, nor with the preſent ſentiments he held as to the terms of the peace, conſcientiouſly do otherwiſe. His lordſhip particularly condemned the giving up the Cape of Good Hope, and the ceſſion by Portugal of that part of her territory in the Brazils, which gives to France the command of the river of the Amazons in that province, which he contended cannot fail of being highly injurious to this country in times to come, whenever war may again break out. He inſiſted that, from our various and great ſucceſſes, we had a right to expect better terms, both for ourſelves and our allies, and feared that the country would at no diſtant period have reaſon to lament the preſent deluſion and enthuſiaſm under which it laboured. His lordſhip, after a variety of arguments, into which our limits will not permit us to follow him, concluded by giving his decided negative to the motion.

The Duke of Clarence ſupported the motion.

Lord Pelham compared the preſent terms of peace with thoſe offered by the late cabinet in the negotiation at Liſle. The only diſadvantage of the preſent was the making of the Cape of Good Hope a free port inſtead of retaining it. Should we have continued the war to retain the Cape? If we have loſt the Cape, we have gained the Myſore, of more real importance. He compared what was now done for our allies, with that propoſed to be done at Liſle, and maintained generally, on a compariſon between the preſent treaty and lord Malmeſbury's negotiation, that the terms were now as good as then propoſed. We had concluded peace with honour, he ſaid, though not with that ſort of glory, which is founded on the humiliation of your enemy. We had done more: we had overcome the prejudices in France and Ireland againſt the Britiſh conſtitution, and had ſtifled thoſe principles hoſtile to its ſafety. Had we no allies, he aſked? Yes, we had the firm ſupport of the Britiſh people.

Earl Weſtmeath congratulated the houſe in the termination of the glorious ſtruggle, which had at laſt gained a ſafe peace.

Lord Grenville—'My lords, my private feelings would naturally induce me to wiſh that an addreſs to the throne, upon the preſent important occaſion, ſhould paſs with unanimity. But, my lords, this is not the peace, which, conſiſtently with the duty I owe to my country, to this houſe, and to my ſovereign, I feel as a matter of rejoicing and gratitude. With much that has fallen from noble lords, I feel no difficulty in agreeing; nor, my

lords, would I hurt the honour of my country by undue condemnation of the meaſures of government. But if this addreſs be carried, my lords, you muſt go to the throne, ſtating this peace to be conducive to the ſubſtantial intereſts of the nation. I cannot go up with ſuch an addreſs. The reverence and duty I owe to my ſovereign forbid me to aſſent to that which I deem, upon no ſlight grounds, hurtful to the beſt intereſts of this kingdom. By what teſt then is the queſtion of the negotiation to be tried? It was early ſtated that this negotiation was to be a queſtion of terms, and of terms only. There are but two ways of laying the foundation of a treaty—the "*ſtatus quo*," and the "*uti poſſidetis*." But in many caſes the *ſtatus ante bellum* is abſurd, owing to the peculiar circumſtances of the parties. Seals and parchments have little influence where territory or wealth are decided already by the ſword of the conqueror. But then, my lords, we muſt conſider the relative ſuperiority or inferiority of the parties; and here I am happy to learn, that, on our part, none of that inferiority exiſts which renders a peace deſirable from neceſſity; a circumſtance, my lords, which ſaves me much trouble at this time, as I was certainly prepared to meet ſuch aſſertions with proofs to the contrary. Such a proud ſituation, my lords, is the beſt, poſſible, for making a negotiation. What then, my lords, was, in fact, the ſituation of the two powers? France ruled the continent. Her dominions were extended far beyond all the ſucceſs of her moſt ſucceſsful ſovereigns, perhaps beyond the fondeſt dreams of their ambition. The fertile country of the Palatinate, the duchy of Savoy, Nice, Avignon, beſide all Belgium, and the countries to the edge of the Rhine, incorporated into her republic. She had not only thus augmented her own power, but had ſurrounded herſelf with a chain of petty ſtates, all her dependents—her republics of Batavia, of Liguria, of Helvetia, and the Ciſalpine; her king of Etruria, and even her king of Spain—Rome at her feet, and Naples in poſſeſſion of her armies. On our part, our naval ſkill and valour had counter-balanced the ſucceſs of France—had captured Minorca, taken Malta, and ſhut up the Mediterranean. We had alſo wreſted from them Egypt, their favourite colony, upon which ſo much money and ſo many lives had been laviſhed. In the Eaſt Indies, my lords, inſtead of ſpecifying what we had taken, I might with more propriety aſk, what had they or their allies left? Batavia! a place which the ravages of diſeaſe rendered not worth the taking, on our part, but which no one will deny it was in our power to capture whenever we choſe. In the Weſt Indies St. Domingo held out, and even that iſland was not theirs; it produced them no profit; it was not in a ſtate adapted to commercial enterpriſe. Trinidada, Martinico, and every French iſland, Guadaloupe excepted, were in Britiſh hands. In South America, my lords, I do not ſpeak upon light grounds, we had gained an empire; an empire almoſt equalling in value that mother country which gave it birth. The value of theſe acquiſitions was little known till Britiſh capital was expended, and Britiſh induſtry employed to diſplay their excellence. We had Surinam, Demerara, Eſſequibo, and Curaçoa. We had deprived France and her allies of all her beneficial fiſheries, had blocked up all their fleets in their own harbours, and gained the undiſputed poſſeſſion of the ſeas. This war, my lords, was not commenced for the purpoſes of colonial aggrandiſement; yet, my lords, I do not think it was wiſe, under all the circumſtances of the caſe, to cripple France by what our wiſeſt politicians have always adopted and recommended, eſpecially in the beginning of a war; I mean, to cramp her commercial ſpirit—to unnerve her maritime energies—and deſtroy her naval exiſtence, by the conqueſt of her colonies. But it was always ſtated that they were held for the magnanimous ends on which Britain has always acted in continental wars—to redeem the loſs of our allies. They were to be held as indemnities for the paſt and as ſecurities for the future—to be applied as thoſe purpoſes might be beſt anſwered. But, my lords, the noble ſecretary of ſtate endeavours to juſtify theſe preliminaries by an appeal to individual conduct. I diſdain, my lords, this method of juſtification. I might leave the negotiations at Liſle, to which that noble lord alluded, to the judgment of the houſe, which ſanctioned thoſe proceedings by their ſolemn votes. But it is in vain that the noble lord endeavours to draw from the conduct of his majeſty's miniſters on that occaſion a defence of his preſent conduct. At that period our conqueſts were far leſs either in number or in value; and although we had agreed to cede over Tobago and Demerara, we had not done, nor attempted, what has now been done ſo laviſhly,

the ſurrender of Malta, Minorca, Surinam, Egypt, and the Cape of Good Hope. Moſt of thoſe are acquiſitions made ſince the negotiations at Liſle, which the noble ſecretary wiſhes ſo much to preſs into his ſervice. Upon what new ſyſtem of conduct, what new principle of action, my lords, does the noble lord find it right to ſay to France, I will take no advantage of the acquiſitions and glories of four years—I will treat you now, with all this accumulation of advantages in my hands, upon preciſely the ſame footing as I would have done, or as others did, four years paſt! But, my lords, the caſes are eſſentially different. At the period of that negotiation the public ſpirit was greatly depreſſed, partly from ſome untoward circumſtances of the war, and partly from the violent declamations in our own country. The war could not have been carried on with any effect without ſhowing the people the unreaſonableneſs, hoſtility, and ambition of the enemy. The event juſtified the attempt in every point of view; and, notwithſtanding the defection of ſome of our allies, the public ſpirit was recruited at the palpable expoſure of the ſpirit and deſigns of the foe. But no one, my lords, will dare now to aſſign ſimilar reaſons for imprudent projects and diſgraceful preliminaries. It is indeed aſſumed, that we are to get as much now as by the projet at Liſle; but that projet, and the preſent articles, are as different as light and darkneſs. By the former, Portugal was to make her peace without any burdens—now ſhe is ſaddled with heavy reſtrictions, ceſſions of her territory, European and colonial, and alterations in her commercial ſyſtem into which we are not ſuffered to inquire. My lords, we had another ally, whom we ought not wholly to neglect, if we ſtudy either our honour or our intereſt—I mean the king of Sardinia. I do not ſay, my lords, that we can do much for that prince; but ſurely we might have expected to ſee ſome ſort of ſtipulation, ſome kind of proviſion or indemnity, for an old ally. In that projet, too, my lords, the prince of Orange was to receive a full indemnity; but how ſtands the caſe now? That prince, ſo deeply connected with our royal family, ſo bound to the intereſts of this country, to whoſe family we have high obligations for their long and firm attachment; that prince, who loſt his every power and privilege for his attachment to Britain, is, for any thing contained in this treaty, rejected from our friendſhip, and abandoned to his fate! To thoſe very perſons, who are our and his enemies, have we bound ourſelves to put in poſſeſſion of thoſe colonies, which were taken in truſt by us for him; and ſome of them expreſly delivered up to us by his order. To them we give up Curaçoa and Iſſequibo, and Surinam, and the Spice Iſlands. It is, however, whiſpered, that by ſecret articles, or by what is to paſs at Amiens, the prince of Orange will receive an indemnity. But, my lords, is there any man of common ſenſe bold enough to maintain, that indemnity is more likely to be procured, as the effect of a formal and ſolemn agreement, than as a ſecret and underſtood, but no where expreſſed, article? I confeſs, my lords, I cannot underſtand this practice of ſigning preliminaries, and laying them before parliament, while there are other articles underſtood, or rather whiſpered to exiſt, which do not appear. It is degrading this houſe to take us up to the throne approving what we cannot underſtand! It is degrading the houſe to refuſe that full explanation, without which we cannot fully diſcuſs theſe preliminaries. Either the treaty of Badajos or that of Madrid gives up to France the command of the Amazons; for I am informed, my lords, but lately, that the French line is to be marked by the river Alamary, which will give them a naval poſt, enſuring the command of the river of the Amazons, and ultimately lead them to the Brazils. Now, my lords, what may be the effect of placing France in ſuch a ſtation of peculiar felicity and power, I leave your lordſhips to judge. Another new ceſſion is that of Cochin. My lords, this place we thought eſſential to our Indian intereſts. I am well informed that Cochin, though not a harbour adapted for a fleet of the line, is perfectly ſuited to merchant veſſels and tranſports, and might be rendered one of the ſtrongeſt poſts in India. By thoſe eaſtern conqueſts which I have alluded to, I ſhould think, my lords, that we had cut away from France all claim to ſettlements in a quarter where ſhe has not now any power calling itſelf her ally and friend. We might with equal propriety claim the poſſeſſion of the barrier towns of her newly-conquered Belgic and German provinces! With reſpect to the Cape, my lords, I am ſtill enough of an old-faſhioned politician to think our poſſeſſion of it a grand object. I have heard, my lords, a great deal about the improvements of navigation, which render this port quite unneceſſary on a voyage to the

Eaſt; but yet it ſeems it would be well to make it a free port! Then there might be occaſion for it, my lords, in ſtreſs of weather. But what do noble lords think of it as a war port? What would they think of the ſafety of an Eaſt India fleet, when at that harbour privateers ſhall be fitted out, and hoſtile preparations conſtantly carried on? Now, my lords, as to the Weſt Indies, I do not certainly undervalue Jamaica, but I do not like to ſee her have ſuch a neighbour as St. Domingo. It is ſaid, I know, that Trinidad is very improveable, but was not Martinico in your poſſeſſion, and cultivated already? But, in fact, you muſt have nothing that was French! I have heard, my lords, that forces to a great amount are ſoon to be ſent to the Weſt Indies by France, under our countenance. What truth there is in this I cannot ſay; but, if it be true, it affords much room for apprehenſion. In the Mediterranean, my lords, all our efforts, all our glories, are fruitleſs, and unproductive. The rock of Gibraltar we retain; but the iſland of Minorca goes back to its former owner. —Malta is to find her guardian in a third power. If I were to conjecture about this third unknown power, it might lead to many obſervations, which I ſhall not now preſs upon your lordſhips. Egypt, taken by our arms from the flower of the French forces, is in fact a conceſſion on our part. Our guarantee of the integrity of the Ottoman territories is a weak and abſurd ſhow of doing ſomething as an equivalent for our univerſal conceſſions; while, in truth, the Porte owes that integrity, not to the councils of our cabinet, or the conferences of our miniſters, but to the ſkill and bravery of our ſoldiers and ſeamen. Rome was, I believe, evacuated by the enemy's troops before our preliminaries were ſigned. Thus are we left, my lords, in a ſituation preſcribed by no domineering neceſſity, enforced by no univerſal clamour or public calamity. But, my lords, I ſhall ſoon hear that the continuance of war would be worſe than the peace. I ſhall ſoon hear that we had no field left to fight in. What! had our enemies no more colonies to loſe? And were not all their diſtant dependencies at our mercy? —But the invaſion? Will any noble lord declare in this houſe that the threat of invaſion terrified us into this melancholy purchaſe of peace? For the honour of this great nation, I can never ſuppoſe it! Let us then, my lords, recollect that the relative ſituation of France and England are now materially changed as to their power and reſources! We muſt not deſpair; but the proſpect is diſtreſſing. Admitting, for the ſake of argument, what is now become faſhionable, that the French government has an equal intereſt with our own in ſuppreſſing jacobiniſm, admitting in the ſame way that the republic is a kingdom, except in the name, and that there is as much diſpoſition there to ſupport regular government as if the lawful heir of the houſe of Bourbon were on the throne of France, ſtill, I ſay, the ambition of France, as directed againſt this country, would, under her enormous aggrandizement, be truly portentous and diſmaying! Even under her monarchy, ſhe at all times manifeſted a diſpoſition to take advantage of our broils. Why, under the conſulate, are we to expect ſuch a different line of conduct? My lords, reviewing the preſent ſtate of Europe, no man can anſwer for a long continuance of peace. Ten years of peace are as much, my lords, as the wiſeſt man would venture to calculate upon in modern Europe. And it is worth while to conſider in what degree of improvement the two countries may be, as to the means of warfare, at the expiration of that period, ſhould any poſſeſſion of ours, or more probably of our allies, tempt the cupidity or ambition of France. My lords, it is a ſerious thing to ſee the intereſts of the country ſigned away. I feel, my lords, for the members of the preſent adminiſtration every kind of perſonal reſpect, but I differ from them moſt decidedly in this inſtance. Still, my lords, I appear not before you as a profeſſed oppoſitioniſt. I will ſtrenuouſly and zealouſly ſupport them, after this unfortunate and much to be lamented buſineſs is diſpoſed of, in every act of firmneſs and vigour which they may diſplay in repelling thoſe efforts, and repreſſing thoſe principles, which have produced the preſent war and the ſufferings of the European world. There is one thing more to which I would advert. My lords, I agree cheerfully in the neceſſity of a peace eſtabliſhment far beyond what has been neceſſary at the termination of former conteſts. The very nature of this peace renders it doubly neceſſary. Let miniſters, in this reſpect, behave with wiſdom, firmneſs, and vigour, and they ſhall have my decided ſupport and approbation.—They are bound to guard againſt the conſequences of what I think—(I may be miſtaken)—but of what I think their indiſ-

cretion. We are now in a new ſituation. My lords, we are enfeebled, but not broken down—we are lowered, but not debaſed. Some of our outworks have been demoliſhed; many of them ſurrendered to the foe; but the citadel yet remains, and while it is defended by the noble courage of united Britons, it will yet bid defiance to attack. We ſhall meet with mortifications and diſappointments; but we ſhall, I truſt, ſtill preſerve our honour, our conſtitution, and our religion.

Lord Eldon roſe, and entered into a defence of the peace, in reply to the arguments that had fallen from the laſt noble lord. He was firmly perſuaded that the war had been carried on until it became hopeleſs to proceed any further. The parliamentary character of the war was this:—it was undertaken to guard the country againſt the effect of principles and practices, which had been propagated and carried on by perſons combined together for the very purpoſe of overturning the conſtitution. With this object in view, the war was attended with ſucceſs, becauſe thoſe principles no longer exiſted to any extent that could be attended with danger. In adviſing his majeſty to make peace, he would periſh ſooner than he would ſacrifice any of the eſſential intereſts of his country; but when he ſaid that, he muſt not be underſtood to vapour in praiſe of the peace, as if it was a very honourable one. His principal object had been, the attainment of a ſecure and laſting peace, and the former miniſters had often declared they had no other object in view; but from what had that night fallen from the noble lord, this was very evident, that unleſs his argument could be diſplaced from their lordſhips' minds, this country was gone and ruined. If the repreſentation was true, which the noble lord had given of the external and internal ſtate of this country, he would aſk him at what period could he ever hope to make a peace? what were the reſtorations he would refuſe? It was true that this country got ſeveral poſſeſſions belonging to the enemy; but he would aſk, had France gained none at all? Had ſhe no dominion over Naples or Portugal? It was ſtated, that in the year 1797, all the poſſeſſions of France would be reſtored, had the negotiation at Liſle been ſucceſsful. A colony reſtored was certainly the ſame thing as if it had never been conquered. It was a fact, that, in the year 1797, a peace had been ſought for with the French directory; but the noble lord ſhould recollect, that nothing had been done at the negotiations at Liſle, except propoſing the baſis on which the parties were about to treat; and there was a material difference between a propoſition and an *ultimatum*. It was not, therefore, certain what conditions would have been agreed upon had the negotiations gone on. The noble lord's obſervations with regard to Portugal were not well-founded; and, whatever conſequences might ariſe from the new arrangements with regard to her American territory, it was an evil which could bear no proportion to that of continuing the war. He would not continue the war with a view of getting rid of the war. There were many things which he might have thought neceſſary to be inſiſted upon, but which circumſtances prevented him from doing. He thought the circumſtances under which this country had entered into the war might have impoſed upon him a neceſſity of requiring that a competent proviſion ſhould be made for the illuſtrious houſe of Orange; but he did not in his conſcience think he would have been juſtified in hazarding the ſucceſs of the treaty by inſiſting on ſuch a condition; and therefore thought it would be wiſer to leave it as a ſubject for future arrangement. With regard to what fell from the noble lord, as to the importance of the Cape of Good Hope, he confeſſed he had himſelf heard ſeamen and ſtateſmen ſay, that it was a place of the firſt conſequence. So far as it ſerved for a harbour to our ſhipping on their voyage to India, it was of ſome conſequence. This advantage was ſtill to continue; but he would aſk, on what grounds could the ceſſion of this port be a matter of regret? Was it becauſe the place had been fed at a moſt enormous expence, from which this country was now happily relieved? He would not then ſay any thing about the value of this place as a free port, but if he had no other object in carrying on the war, than that of determining whether a certain point of land, at the extremity of Africa, was to belong to Great Britain, or to Holland, and conſidering, at the ſame time, that ſince this place got into our poſſeſſion, no leſs a ſum than 125 millions had been ſpent, and that another year would take away thirty millions more, without this country being a whit nearer the object in view, he had no heſitation in declaring which courſe he ſhould purſue. The noble lord had found fault with the ceſſion of territory and a port that had been made in the Mediterranean;

and aſked, what was to become of our fleets that were ſailing in that ſea. What would the noble lord have ſaid on this ſubject, had he conſented to make peace in 1797, when neither Malta nor Minorca were in our poſſeſſion? If he conceived the occupation of them on the part of Great Britain as neceſſary to the ſecurity of this country, how would he have ſuppoſed it poſſible for England to make a ſecure peace when we did not poſſeſs thoſe iſlands? As to Minorca, he did not think the occupation of it at all neceſſary to our ſecurity: and as to Malta, if we conſidered the facility with which it became an eaſy acquiſition to France, it muſt appear that our ſecurity with regard to that port muſt be increaſed with the difficulty of the French being able to take poſſeſſion of it again, while under the guarantee of a third power. With reſpect, therefore, to Malta, we were evidently in a better ſituation than we would have been, had peace been concluded in 1797. As to our ſhips in the Mediterranean, if they had nothing elſe to do but to ſail round that ocean, he thought it by no means an uſeful employment. There was no uſe in keeping a naval ſtation there, if we could not command the commerce of that ſea; particularly ſo, if the French had taken poſſeſſion of Naples and Portugal, as they might have done. As to the Weſt-India iſlands, he could aſſure their lordſhips, that if he could have got Martinique, he would have retained it for this country in preference to Trinidad. If, therefore, it had not been in his power to have obtained what he liked beſt, what alternative was there? Nothing, but that of ſpending thirty millions more, in order that he might be able to aſk himſelf that day twelve months how many more years were to paſs away before peace could be made. If any noble lord maintained that peace ought to be rejected, when propoſed on the terms of the treaty then before the houſe, he would aſk him, on what terms ſuch noble lord would conſent to a peace? He knew there were ſome members in both houſes, who thought it neceſſary to go on with the war until the antient monarchy of France ſhould be reſtored. He would not then enter into the queſtion how far that was a deſirable object; but let it be ever ſo deſirable, he would aſk, how it could be done? If the preſent government of France was an evil, how was it to be removed? It could not be done without a great coalition of the European powers; and even when the combination did exiſt, it was able to effect nothing. If, on the other hand, he had ſaid he would not agree to a peace, unleſs France reſtored all the territory it had ſeized on the continent of Europe, and France refuſed to comply, he ſhould, by holding out on that point, conſider himſelf as guilty of a criminal waſte of the blood and treaſure of his countrymen. The noble lord had taken notice of the diſſemination of principles that were incompatible with all regular government: on this ſubject he could only ſay, that if Great Britain was true to herſelf, ſhe had nothing to fear from any principles that might ſtill exiſt in France. She had already read France an awful leſſon, and did ſo with effect. The people of this country had reaſon, from the examples before them, to feel the value of their conſtitution. The greateſt evil that was to be feared, was the effect which peace might have on a ſmall band of people in this country, who might ſtill wiſh to follow the practices of ſome diſaffected perſons in France; but to ſay that the preſent government of France was founded on principles deſtructive to civilized government, was an abſurdity in itſelf; and the people of England had too much good ſenſe to ſhed the blood of one half of their countrymen in a civil war, for the ſole proſpect of gaining ſomething which could never be called a ſyſtem of liberty. He was confident that the vigour of the law would enable the government to prevent all internal miſchief. As to the danger of peace not being permanent, there was a greater chance of its being permanent now, than in the year 1797, when the late miniſters negotiated with France. Although he did not attempt to repreſent this peace as a glorious one: yet it was a peace which he believed would be conducive to the ſecurity of the ſubſtantial intereſts of the country. In adviſing his ſovereign to agree to the terms, he acted from the beſt of his judgment, and from his conſcience: if he erred, he had only to ſay, that he meant well. With gratitude to thoſe perſons whoſe extraordinary valour, which taught the enemy what treaſures we ſtill had in ſtore, and, with confidence in the legiſlature, we had ſtill to hope that our juſtice and moderation would entitle us to the favour and protection of that Providence whoſe wiſe counſels would always ſhow us what was the fate of nations; and that if ever we ſhould be overwhelmed in the wreck, there would ſtill be found ſome perſons who were doing their duty.

Lord Moira ſaid, he thought that although the terms were inadequate, yet they were unavoidable; and that not one of the objects for which the war had been undertaken was ſecured by the peace. The noble lord, who now condemned the peace, ſhould recollect that he had left the country in jeopardy, and to the chance of recovering itſelf ſome way or other. It was impoſſible for any peace, after this, to be concluded which was not inadequate. He and his former colleagues were ſucceeded by men who purſued a different ſyſtem. He knew what their ſentiments were; and as long as they continued to act upon them, they ſhould have his warmeſt ſupport.

The duke of Bedford, after ſome animadverſions on the former conduct of the miniſtry, gave his applauſe to the preſent, for having procured peace to the country, in which event he rejoiced, and on which occaſion he perfectly concurred in the addreſs to the throne.

The earl of Weſtmoreland expreſſed his opinion, that if every man in the country had exerted himſelf to the utmoſt, we might have obtained better terms of peace. He concurred, however, in the motion for the addreſs.

The biſhop of Rocheſter ſaid, that it might ſeem to require ſome apology for him, as a miniſter of the goſpel of Chriſt, riſing to oppoſe peace, but he felt a duty to his country, which he conſidered as paramount to all other conſiderations, and which prompted him to ſpeak his opinion clearly and explicitly upon the preſent momentous occaſion. He could not but conſider the treaty of peace, which left France in poſſeſſion of ſuch extended territory on the continent, as dangerous to this country, and as deluſive in itſelf. He, therefore, could not concur in the addreſs moved for.

The biſhop of London roſe, to ſpeak only one word. He was the decided friend of peace. The people of this country had ſeen nine years of war, and two of famine, and he could not but rejoice that they were relieved from both.

Earl Fitzwilliam ſaid, he would not have obtruded himſelf upon their lordſhips at ſo late an hour, but he felt it inconſiſtent with his feelings, and former conduct, to give a ſilent vote upon the preſent occaſion. He had ever deprecated a peace with republican France, and he could not but do ſo now as much as ever he had done.

The earl of St. Vincent declared that he ſhould, to the lateſt hour of his life, recollect with pleaſure the part he had taken in bringing about the peace, which he moſt ſincerely believed was advantageous to the country, and honourable to our allies.

Lord viſcount Nelſon expreſſed his opinion, that the Cape of Good Hope was by no means worth riſking any thing to retain; that it was of the greateſt importance to wreſt Malta from France, but of little value to England as an acquiſition, as our fleets could not at that ſtation watch the port of Toulon. The peace he thought a good one, and that the country owed much to his majeſty, for his paternal care and goodneſs in bringing it about.

The marquis of Buckingham was againſt the preliminaries, as generally inſecure, diſhonourable, and diſadvantageous in every point of view to the country.

The earl of Caernarvon followed on the ſame ſide.

Lord Hobart ſpoke in defence of the preliminaries, principally in anſwer to what had fallen from lord Grenville. With reſpect to the prince of Orange, miniſters, he ſaid, had not been neglectful of his intereſts; the fact was, that a treaty had been in forwardneſs in Berlin, and it was judged better for the intereſts of that prince to abſtain in the preſent inſtance: indeed ſuch was the prince's own opinion, and it was ſo arranged, that the affair might be taken up again at the diſcuſſion of the definitive treaty.

The queſtion was now loudly called for, and their lordſhips divided.—For the addreſs, 94, proxies 20; againſt it, 10; majority, 104.

At five o'clock in the morning the houſe adjourned.

Friday, November 6.

The houſe met at one o'clock, and the earl of Cheſterfield having acquainted their lordſhips that his majeſty had been waited on, according to their orders, to know when he would be pleaſed to receive the addreſs of that houſe, approving of the preliminaries of peace, and that his majeſty had been graciouſly pleaſed to appoint this day, at two o'clock, for that purpoſe.

The houſe therefore proceeded to St. James' with their addreſs, of which the following is a copy, with his majeſty's anſwer:

'Moſt gracious ſovereign,

'We, your majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, in parliament aſſembled, beg leave to return your majeſty our moſt ſincere

thanks for your gracious condeſcenſion in directing the preliminary articles of peace, which have been ratified by your majeſty and the French republic, to be laid before this houſe.

'We can aſſure your majeſty, that we have beſtowed on them that ſerious conſideration which the important objects they embrace ſo juſtly demand; and we beg leave to expreſs to your majeſty, with the moſt heartfelt gratitude, the ſatisfaction we derive from this important arrangement, which, while it manifeſts your majeſty's juſtice and moderation, and the regard and attention to good faith which have governed your majeſty's conduct toward your allies, will, we are perſuaded, be productive of important national advantages, and promote the ſubſtantial intereſts of this country.'

His majeſty's moſt gracious anſwer.

'My lords,

'I thank you for this dutiful and loyal addreſs.

'The ſatisfaction you expreſs at the foundation which has been laid by the preliminary articles, for the final reſtoration of peace, is highly acceptable to me; and you may reſt aſſured that I ſhall, on my part, uſe my utmoſt endeavours to bring this important tranſaction to a concluſion, in ſuch manner as may moſt effectually tend to promote and ſecure the public intereſts, and the welfare of my people.'

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## HOUSE OF COMMONS.

### Thurſday, Oct. 29.

THE uſher of the black rod having ſummoned the commons to the bar of the houſe of lords, a number of members, headed by the ſpeaker, immediately repaired to the upper houſe. Having returned, the ſpeaker took the chair, and, according to annual cuſtom, the bill for preventing clandeſtine outlawries was read a firſt and ſecond time.

The ſpeaker then read his majeſty's ſpeech.

Lord Lovaine roſe. He congratulated the houſe upon the reſtoration of friendſhip between this country and the northern powers, as an event which moſt certainly would be productive of ſingular advantages to the commercial intereſts of Great Britain. The preliminaries of peace, which had been ſigned between this country and the French republic, had been received with joy by a great majority of his majeſty's ſubjects; he truſted that the motion which he was about to make would experience a ſimilar majority in that houſe. He certainly was of opinion that the peace was in a great meaſure the fruit of the ſucceſs of our brave army in Egypt, the merits of which army his lordſhip highly extolled. He then concluded by moving, that an addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, thanking his majeſty for his moſt gracious communication, &c. The addreſs was nearly an echo of the ſpeech.

Colonel Wodehouſe ſeconded the motion.

Mr. Fox, in a ſpeech of very few words, teſtified his entire approbation of the peace, under the exiſting circumſtances of the country.

Mr. Pitt followed. For once, he ſaid, the hon. gentleman (Mr. Fox) and he did agree in opinion, although when the diſcuſſion of the preliminaries came on, he did not doubt that their agreement would be found to reſult from very different motives.

Mr. Windham began by aſſuring the houſe, that he intended not to have troubled them upon the preſent occaſion, but that he felt himſelf called upon not to give a ſilent vote, by ſomething which had fallen from the hon. gentleman (Mr. Pitt). The hon. gentleman had ſtated his opinion upon the peace, but far from being convinced by any thing he had either heard or read upon the ſubject, he unfortunately entertained an opinion completely oppoſite. In this he might appear captious or ſingular, but the more he revolved it in his mind, the more was he ſatisfied of the impropriety of the late meaſures. He differed widely from thoſe who talked of the advantages which would reſult from the peace. Theſe had been vaunted and extolled at a moſt enormous rate, but he was inclined to think, that in place of deriving advantage, the way was now paved to inevitable ruin. He lamented that he could not enjoy the illuminations, and ringing of bells, which had taken place upon this occaſion. So far from participating in the general joy, he was overwhelmed with grief, and he could not help thinking that theſe rejoicings were the prelude to lighting up the funeral pile, and tolling the knell of Great Britain. He knew that it was impoſſible to avert the decrees of Providence, and a moſt heavy judgment had fallen upon the land. By ſigning the treaty, the noble lord had ſubſcribed the death blow of the country. He dreaded every thing from that ſtep, and his preſages were far from being of a

cheering nature. He hoped that his apprehenſions might not be realized, but we had much to guard againſt, and nothing to protect us. The territory of the enemy was immenſe: her conqueſts and acquiſitions on the continent had given a degree of power and conſiſtency to her dominions, and nothing was required to render her in every reſpect truly formidable to England, except a ſhare of the commerce of the world, which we have ſo long and ſo beneficially enjoyed. That advantage France will now obtain. She will ſend her ſhips all over the globe, and by that means alone injure this country in the moſt eſſential part. He would not dwell upon this, it was a heart-rending ſubject, and would to a certainty take place. With regard to the peace itſelf, he reprobated it in very ſtrong terms: he ſhould not aſk miniſters to prove that the peace was an honourable one; no, he now put national honour, glory, and independence, entirely aſide: let miniſters only prove that the peace was a ſafe one, one which might be relied upon as permanent and ſtable, and he ſhould ſupport it. Until that was made out to his ſatisfaction, until he was thoroughly convinced that it would endure, he ſhould ſtrenuouſly oppoſe and condemn it. In his opinion, the peace could only be juſtified upon one rational ground, which was, neceſſity. If miniſters had been compelled to it, which he did not believe, he ſhould ſay nothing, but only deplore in ſilence, an event ſo humiliating. Mr. Windham concluded with ſaying, that he ſhould not oppoſe the addreſs unleſs it touched upon the peace; but that in that caſe it ſhould experience all the oppoſition he could give.

Mr. Addington remarked, that his hon. friend had gone rather minutely into the circumſtances of the peace. The hon. gentleman was not warranted for ſuch conduct by any thing in his majeſty's moſt gracious ſpeech, which only ſaid, that his majeſty truſted the arrangement which would be made, might be conducive to the honour of the national character. The treaty of peace was not as yet before the houſe, and it was rather premature, not to ſay indecorous, to hazard any ſpeculations upon the ſubject, as matters ſtood.

Lord Temple ſaid a few words, and begged to be underſtood as diſapproving of the peace.

The queſtion was then put, that a committee be appointed to frame the addreſs, which was carried *nemine diſſentiente*.

Lord Hawkeſbury ſuggeſted that the treaty of peace with France ſhould be taken into conſideration on Tueſday next. This was agreed to.—Adjourned.

Friday, Oct. 30.

Lord Hawkeſbury brought up copies of the convention between his majeſty and the emperor of Ruſſia, and of the preliminaries of peace between Great Britain and the French republic.

Colonel Wodehouſe brought up the report of the addreſs, which was read a firſt and ſecond time; and, on a motion of Mr. Addington, was ordered to be preſented to his majeſty by the whole houſe.

Mr. Addington then roſe, and ſaid he had a vote of thanks to propoſe, which he truſted would not be oppoſed. It was intended for a gallant and intrepid officer, who with a force infinitely inferior, had nobly attacked a ſquadron of the enemy's ſhips, and had ſucceeded in his bold enterprize. It was almoſt unneceſſary for him to mention the name of that officer, when he ſtated, that this additional inſtance of Britiſh heroiſm took place in the bay of Algeſiras, upon the 12th and 13th days of July laſt. The houſe would know, that ſir James Saumarez was the commander to whom he had alluded. He had ſhared in the glory of the 14th of February under lord St. Vincent, and alſo participated in that of the firſt of Auguſt under lord Nelſon. After having paſſed a high eulogium upon the bravery of ſir James Saumarez, and alſo complimented the officers, ſeamen, and marines under his command, he concluded by moving, that the thanks of the houſe ſhould be given to ſir James Saumarez, K. B. for the zeal and alacrity he had diſplayed in attacking a ſuperior force of the enemy in the bay of Algeſiras upon the 12th and 13th days of July laſt, &c.—Mr. Addington made ſimilar motions for the thanks of the houſe to be given to the captains, officers, ſeamen, and marines under the command of ſir James, upon that occaſion. Theſe motions were put and carried *nem. con.* The ſpeaker was then ordered to communicate the above vote of thanks to ſir James Saumarez—Adjourned.

Tueſday, Nov. 3.

The order of the day being read for taking the treaty into conſideration,

Sir E. Hartopp roſe to move an addreſs of thanks to his majeſty on the preliminaries of peace with France, a peace in which he ſaid Great Britain had diſplayed a magnanimity highly honourable to herſelf—in maintaining the integrity of her

allies, and bartering a part of her acquiſitions in return for their ſecurity—while the acquiſitions ſhe had retained, were thoſe the beſt calculated for her intereſts and her commerce. He had no heſitation in declaring that the treaty was highly honourable to Great Britain, that it was calculated to inſure her intereſts, and to increaſe her proſperity. The hon. baronet concluded by moving the addreſs.

Mr. Lee ſeconded the motion of the hon. baronet. He was of opinion that the peace, under all the circumſtances of the country, was not only honourable and advantageous, but the beſt that could have been negotiated.

Lord Leviſon Gower had no heſitation in ſaying, that the terms of the preſent treaty were worſe than thoſe of the treaty of Liſle, and that from all the circumſtances which appeared they might have been made better. He was not prepared however to vote againſt the treaty; he believed better terms might have been obtained; but the treaty gave peace, and that had cauſed a general ſenſation of joy throughout the country; he had ſeen it among his conſtituents, and was perfectly convinced the country rejoiced at it. He could not, however, conſent to add to it the epithet of glorious and honourable.

Lord Hawkeſbury—'I riſe, ſir, at this early hour, to ſtate to the houſe thoſe reaſons, which, under all circumſtances, as they regard the preſent ſituation of this country, of Europe, and of the world, have induced his majeſty's miniſters to adviſe his majeſty to conclude peace with the French republic. Sir, upon the queſtion of peace generally, I wiſh to make a few obſervations. To ſay, after nine years of war; after an expenditure of 200,000,000l.; after a waſte of ſo much blood; after the ſtretch of exertions in which the country had been kept; that peace is not deſireable, is what I am not diſpoſed to advance, or I conceive any gentleman would be inclined to hear; but I completely diſclaim any idea of this peace having been made under any impreſſion of the over ruling power of the French republic. I heſitate not in avowing, that the energies and reſources of this country are as great as at any period; her ſituation as proud and pre eminent as ever; and her means of continuing the conteſt in which ſhe was engaged, adequate to every exertion that might have been required.—It was under theſe circumſtances, and under this conviction, that his majeſty's miniſters adviſed his majeſty to conclude a peace with the preſent government of France. Let their conduct be tried on theſe grounds with regard to the attainment of—what! a peace, the terms of which are altogether ſatisfactory—and are liable to no objection? No, ſir, I mean no ſuch thing. What human event ever was there of ſuch a nature as not to be liable to objection? I mean that, which, upon full and mature conſideration of all the circumſtances, as regarding the ſituation of the enemy, the relative ſituation of Europe and the world, was wiſe and prudent, and what his majeſty's government, if better could not have been obtained, would have been anſwerable for not adviſing his majeſty to conſent to. There may be a variety of different views upon the ſubject. Some may object to the treaty with reference to the preſent government of France, others on the ſtate of the continent, and others on its own grounds, as regarding the terms. With reſpect to the firſt objection, I ſhall trouble the houſe but ſhortly.—If we contemplate France at the commencement of the revolution, and at the preſent moment, who can avoid obſerving that thoſe principles which were the moſt dangerous enemies we had to contend againſt, and which were induſtriouſly diſſeminated, are weakened in the minds of the people? Who can look at France and not ſee that its beſt years, ſince the revolution, are thoſe in which it has been under its preſent government? That there is not evil to be apprehended from that government, conſtituted as it is, I do not ſay; but the evils which threaten, at the end of 1801, are not to be compared with thoſe we had ſo much cauſe to dread at the end of 1793. I come now to the next view, of the objections to the peace, as they relate to the unſatisfactory ſtate of the continent. No man regrets more than I do the ſituation in which it ſtands; but there are two points to be conſidered: firſt, whether it would be expedient to effect an alteration in it, if we had the power of ſo doing? and, ſecondly, whether we have the power? Now, I will fairly ſay, that after two coalitions have failed, I ſhould not have been prepared to have formed a third; but there may be others who entertain a different opinion. I will then aſk, what chance there is of forming ſuch a coalition? The proſpect of another coalition is wholly out of the queſtion—There is not one of the great powers of Europe diſpoſed to enter into any freſh engagements of that kind. Auſtria, great as her power ſtill

remains, notwithſtanding all the reverſes ſhe has met with, is not diſpoſed to become a party. Pruſſia preſerves the ſame policy ſhe has adopted for ſome years. Ruſſia is as little inclined as either of the other two to enter into a continental coalition. Under theſe circumſtances I will aſk, whether any one would deſire, if another coalition cannot be formed, that the war ſhould be continued by this country alone, without the proſpect of gaining any thing by it? It is alſo to be conſidered what harm can we do to France, and what harm France can do to us. No man can be more ſanguine than myſelf with reſpect to the means of this country to reſiſt any attempt on the part of France to injure it. I never was alarmed at the idea of a French invaſion. But, on the other hand, let us conſider what this country can do againſt France: what part of the world is there in which we have it in our power to injure her? Her colonies abroad are in our poſſeſſion already—then, if neither country can affect the other, wherefore continue the war? But has France no means of injuring other powers? The policy of France has always been to attack the weaker powers of the continent. Could you ſave them by continuing the war? You could not, at leaſt you could not ſave the whole of Europe. Now I come to the third objection, and that is the peace itſelf, conſidered according to its terms: upon this ſubject there are three points that muſt be taken into conſideration—the firſt is the time, the ſecond the tone, and the third the terms. However important the laſt may be, the two firſt are no leſs ſo—firſt, I mean that a peace ſhould be made at a time when the impreſſion of our enemies and our own ſubjects ſhall be founded on our ſucceſſes. Terms which in a moment of defeat would be diſhonourable, in a moment of ſucceſs and victory might be wiſe to accede to. With reſpect to the ſecond point, the tone in which the peace ought to be made, it ought to be in a tone of independence, and every claim on the part of the enemy, which might tend to humiliate us, ought to be reſiſted. I need not remind the houſe what unreaſonable claims were advanced by the French government at the period of the treaty of Liſle; but it is impoſſible for any perſon to peruſe this treaty, and not ſay it is made in the tone of an independent country. Every demand of an humiliating tendency has been reſiſted. With reſpect to the terms—but before I go into that, I wiſh to make a few remarks connected with this part of the ſubject: the firſt is, that the public prints, undervaluing the reſources of this country, and enhancing thoſe of our enemies, indulge a liberty of diſcuſſing points connected with the preſent treaty, at the ſame time placing but little value on the acquiſitions which we derive from it. This is an inconvenience in negotiating a peace never before experienced, not even in this country, till the preſent war. Another conſideration, the negotiations at Liſle. It is much to be regretted, that this country ſhould have been induced to have carried them ſo far. I do not ſay, that if France had been driven back within her ancient limits, they could have produced the leaſt ill effect; but as the contrary has been the caſe, it is impoſſible but they muſt have operated upon the conditions of the preſent treaty. I come now to the terms. The firſt point to be obſerved upon relates to our fidelity toward our allies. I contend there was but one country for the integrity of which, as it ſtood before the war, we were bound to ſtipulate, and that was the Ottoman Porte. It was the only one that ſtood by us to the end of the conteſt, and our honour dictated to ſtipulate for its complete integrity; but not ſo with regard to thoſe that deſired their releaſe from their treaties with us. Naples was of that number: ſhe deſired to be releaſed from her obligation not to make a ſeparate peace; ſhe demanded the liberty of admitting the fleets of France into her ports, to the excluſion of yours, and to introduce French troops to attack yours; aggreſſions ſufficient to juſtify a declaration of war on the part of this country. With reſpect to Portugal, ſhe is in the ſame ſituation as Naples with regard to her right to the interference of this country in her behalf; ſhe deſired to be releaſed from her engagements; ſhe deſired to exclude your veſſels from her ports, and admit thoſe of France; ſhe concluded a treaty at Badajos with Spain and France, which was afterward ratified on the part of Spain, but refuſed to be ratified on the part of France; this government thought it did as much as it was called upon by its good faith, by ſtipulating with France that any demand upon Portugal ſubſequent to the treaty of Badajos ſhould be conſidered as cancelled. The Ottoman Porte remained faithful to the laſt. You have obtained a peace for her, and an expreſs declaration for the maintenance of her integrity. You have obtained the ex-

preſs renunciation of France to the Seven Ex-Venetian Iſles, to which ſhe had a claim by the treaty of Campo Formio. If France had taken the Venetian Iſlands, or had ceded them to the emperor, there would unqueſtionably have been an end of the independence of Turkey. You have obtained a renunciation of all France ever claimed under the treaty of Campo Formio. You have obtained all that the Porte ever aſked, or could have wiſhed. The next point relates to the claims of the Stadtholder. I know of no obligation of ſtrict faith which compels us to ſtipulate on behalf of that prince. It is true, that in 1787 you guaranteed the independence of the prince of Orange conjointly with the king of Pruſſia. The conſequence of that guarantee was every endeavour on the part of this country to protect the prince of Orange, while, on the contrary, the king of Pruſſia did nothing. It is true, that you endeavoured by your aſſiſtance to replace the prince of Orange on the throne, from which he had been expelled; and if you had been aſſiſted by the king of Pruſſia, your endeavours might have been ſucceſsful. Surely then, in the caſe of a joint guarantee, where one party does nothing, and the other does every thing, there can be no obligation; but, notwithſtanding that, his majeſty's government would have been to blame not to have interfered on behalf of the prince of Orange; and if they did not follow up their endeavours in his favour, it was becauſe it was intimated that an arrangement was in agitation to indemnify him for what had been wreſted from him; the terms of which were to be included in the definitive treaty. With reſpect to the king of Sardinia, I deny there is any ground whatever to ſay this country is bound to ſtipulate for the integrity of his dominions; he gave up his engagements with this country, entered into a treaty with France, and delivered up to her the poſſeſſion of his ſtrong places.—The next point I come to is the queſtion of ceſſion; and on this queſtion I hold a principle, not haſtily formed, that if a country be great and powerful, an unlimited acceſſion of territory is not to be conſidered an advantage, and I ſhall not be afraid of applying this principle to France. I do not mean to ſay France has not increaſed in power by what ſhe has gained on the continent; but I aſſert ſhe has not gained an addition of power proportionate to her acquiſitions. I ſpeak the ſentiments of men of eminence in France, of Dumourier and Carnot, both of whom were of opinion, that making the banks of the Rhine the limits of France, tended to weaken it. The principle, I ſhould think, equally true with regard to colonial acquiſitions. I believe, whatever any one may feel with reſpect to the iſſue of the conteſt with America, as to the honour we might have loſt in conſequence of it, none will deny, that it had been amply compenſated by the advantages it has been productive of, with regard to our trade, commerce, and navigation. Indeed the evil reſulting from too great an acquiſition of territory muſt be obvious, when we conſider how very large a proportion of the colonies we already occupy are uncultivated. Having ſtated thus much, I mean to ſay a few words as to the eſſential value of the places we have ceded. Firſt, as to the Cape of Good Hope; and it is a ſubject on which I know I differ in opinion from ſome of thoſe for whom I entertain the higheſt reſpect; I can only ſay that the opinion his majeſty's miniſters have formed, has been the reſult of a conſiderable deal of caution and circumſpection, and not without taking the opinion of thoſe who were moſt capable of giving it correctly. I do not think that, with a view to any future attack by the French upon our Eaſtern poſſeſſions, the Cape of Good Hope can be looked upon as dangerous, while we have a powerful and ſuperior navy; and as to any advantages of a commercial nature which France may derive from it, they are of inconſiderable moment, as France has an infinitely more convenient poſſeſſion in the iſland of Mauritius. There is another place; I mean Minorca. I am one who do not think it an important acquiſition; it is that which is always firſt loſt in every war, if you have not a fleet in the Mediterranean, and the firſt gained if you have. With reſpect to what is called the Levant trade, which it is ſuppoſed we ſecure by the poſſeſſion of Minorca, it is to this country next to nothing; the whole trade of this country even during this war was never 120,000l. With regard to the ſupply of the South of Europe, it muſt ever be in poſſeſſion of the Southern nations; and with reſpect to the North it is not in the poſſeſſion of this country, but of the Dutch. The policy of this country has been to oblige all ſhips coming from the Levant to perform quarantine before they come to our ports. By the laws of Holland, goods from the Levant can be brought immediately to its ports, which

enabled the Dutch merchants to underſell us. I would now wiſh to ſay a few words reſpecting Ceylon and Trinidad. No perſon acquainted with the Eaſt and Weſt Indies would heſitate in ſaying, that Ceylon was the moſt valuable iſland in the Eaſt, and Trinidad in the Weſt; they are the two great naval ſtations in thoſe parts of the globe. The iſland of Ceylon is of the utmoſt importance to the ſecurity of our poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, as the whole of them contain not a ſingle harbour in which a fleet can anchor with ſafety, at certain months of the year. It is an iſland of incalculable value, and perhaps more particularly ſo, with regard to the ſecurity it may afford our armies, in caſe of any ſudden reverſe of fortune. When we look to ſuch an empire as that we poſſeſs in India, and that this iſland is one to which our troops may retire, and with the aſſiſtance of our navy in thoſe parts defy the collected power of the enemy, we cannot appreciate it too highly. With reſpect to Trinidad, it is the great naval ſtation of the Weſt Indies. It is free from hurricanes, more healthy than any of the other Weſt India iſlands, poſſeſſes more land fit for cultivation, and from the power it will give us in that part of the world, in the event of a future war, it is preciſely the place we ought to prefer to every other poſſeſſion. Now then, with reſpect to a peace which preſerves all the ancient relations of this country, and at the ſame time adds two important poſſeſſions to what we before poſſeſſed, I would aſk, whether it ought to be objected to? I am not talking about a glorious peace. I do not wiſh to have any thing to do with glory, or to introduce the word upon the ſubject. I ſay, however, no perſon who looks at this peace can aſſert it is not honourable; that it is not wiſe; that it would have been better not to have made any peace than ſuch a one, and that we ought to continue the war till we had obtained other terms. I deſire that the terms of this peace ſhould be compared with thoſe of any former one ſince the revolution. During that period there have been five treaties—thoſe of Ryſwick, Utrecht, Aix-la-Chapelle, Paris, and Verſailles. By the two firſt treaties we gained nothing; by the treaty of Verſailles we loſt conſiderably: the only treaties by which we gained were thoſe of Utrecht in the year 1713, and of Paris in 1763; but at thoſe periods this country had not only arrived at the higheſt degree of ſplendour, but France was, on the contrary, as much diſpirited and humbled.—At preſent, circumſtances are different; we have reached the utmoſt extent of our naval power; but, in point of impreſſion, ſo material in arranging a treaty of peace, France has obtained ſucceſſes on the continent, which neceſſarily have the effect of enabling her to negotiate with advantage; but take the treaties ſeparately, and this will be found as advantageous as either of them. By that of Utrecht we obtained only Minorca and Gibraltar. Whatever value may be attached to the latter place, particularly ſince the attack it reſiſted, which makes it a point of national honour to preſerve it, there are no advantages it poſſeſſes which afford the leaſt means of adding to the ancient and legitimate ſources of our wealth. With regard to the treaty of Paris, its terms were more in our favour: we obtained, beſide the acknowledgment of the right of the Newfoundland fiſhery, the ceſſion of Canada and Florida; but the intrinſic value of thoſe acquiſitions could not be compared with what we have obtained by the preſent treaty. I would aſk, then, whether a peace, which, compared with every former one, exceeds, in a national point of view, any in the courſe of the laſt century, can be conſidered as a diſadvantageous one, however you may lament the ſtate of the continent? I am not diſpoſed to go into compariſons between this treaty and that of Liſle. The compariſon is unfair, for it is comparing an *ultimatum* with a firſt *projet*. His lordſhip next alluding to the preſent increaſe of ſtrength of the French republic by their acquiſitions on the continent, ſaid, he conceived himſelf juſtified on the other hand to take into conſideration the depreſſed ſtate of its commerce, and the increaſe of that of this country. He knew that there were many perſons who aſcribed the increaſe of our commerce to the circumſtances of the war; to refute this idea, he read extracts from public accounts, proving that the increaſe of our trade, and the balance in our favour, referred to poſſeſſions we enjoyed previous to the war, not only in the Weſt but Eaſt Indies. There was another point equally ſatisfactory, and that was the comparative ſtate of the French and Engliſh navy prior to the war, and at the preſent time. On the 1ſt of February, 1793, we had 135 ſail of the line and 133 frigates; and in October 1, 1801, 202 ſail of the line and 227 frigates. The navy of France, in 1793, was 80 ſhips of the line and 74

frigates, and at preſent amounted only to 39 ſail of the line and 99 frigates. The navy of England had increaſed in an aſtoniſhing proportion, while that of France was not above one-half what it had been at the commencement of the war. It was ſaid that France would pay her whole attention to her navy, and would render it as formidable as our own. He deſired gentlemen to take into conſideration the number of years this would require. It was not only the making ſhips that was neceſſary: the making ſeamen, that was more material; it ſhould be conſidered that while the military navy of this country had been employed, its commercial navy had been increaſing. He did not mean to ſay that every exertion would not be made by France; but it would be eight or ten years before ſhe could have a navy capable of contending with ours, and in that time we might renew the conteſt, if neceſſary, with greater advantage than by continuing it now; and, if a continental diverſion was neceſſary, we ſhould have a greater chance of obtaining one than at preſent. After obſerving upon the advantages this country had derived from the unexpected adjuſtment of the Northern diſpute, and the arrangement of the preliminaries of peace, I know, ſaid he, we are indebted to Providence chiefly for theſe bleſſings. I know that no human wiſdom could have accompliſhed them. All I claim for myſelf and my colleagues is, that we have availed ourſelves of circumſtances as they have ariſen; that we have not loſt a moment or an opportunity which events have afforded us for terminating the war. We have entitled ourſelves to ſay to our brave ſoldiers and ſailors, you have not ſpilled your blood in vain, you have not gained a victory which we have not made the means of obtaining peace, and at the ſame time of affording new proofs of the moderation of the country. I maintain, that the country has come out of a moſt tremendous conteſt, great in power, great in reſources, honour, and credit. I am aware the ſituation of Europe and the world is critical. I am perſuaded, however, that by perſevering in a plan of rational policy, founded on a happy mixture of prudence and conciliation, the bleſſing we have obtained will long continue to be enjoyed. His lordſhip concluded by thanking the houſe for the indulgence with which he had been heard.

Mr. T. Grenville, after taking a general review of the conduct of this country to our allies, and having made ſeveral obſervations on the value of the acquiſitions of France, and of the ceſſions retained by this country, condemned the peace as neither honourable in reſpect of our alliances, nor wiſe in reſpect of the ceſſions. It therefore only remained to be conſidered whether it was a neceſſary peace. This, however, he ſaid, the chancellor of the exchequer had diſclaimed. He was of opinion that the country was not in ſuch a low ſituation as to be obliged to abandon its allies, or to fear the hoſtilities of France. We were told to eſtimate Ceylon and Trinidad higher than the ceſſions of the peace of Utrecht, becauſe France was now more powerful. In his mind, the increaſed power of France was a drawback upon the value of theſe acquiſitions. The danger which he apprehended was not from the principles, but the power of France. Mr. Grenville proceeded to enforce the great advantages which France, with all theſe ceſſions and military points, would have over England, were a new war to break out between them in twelve months, or ſome other ſhort period, and concluded with cenſuring the manner in which they were laviſhed.

Lord Caſtlereagh thought that upon a view of all the circumſtances the terms of the peace were compatible with honour, and alſo adequate to ſecurity in a greater degree than any reſult to be expected from a perſeverance in the war.

Earl Temple contended, that he ſhould not do his duty if he he did not, though certainly with ſentiments of deep regret and great unwillingneſs, aſſert that miniſters, by ſigning the treaty of peace now on the table, had ſigned the ruin of the country. They had trenched upon the ſecurity, they had touched the proſperity of the country, while they had placed the enemy in a ſituation in which he could ſcarcely be aſſailed. In ſhort, they had thrown the commerce of Europe into the power of France; they had given her a vaſt extent of coaſt, and the power of making every advantage of it.

Mr. Banks approved of the peace, as the termination of a diſaſtrous and expenſive war.

Mr. Pitt.—Upon this occaſion, I have the misfortune to differ from ſome with whom I have been long united in the ties of private friendſhip and political opinion; I am therefore anxious to ſtate the grounds on which I find myſelf under this painful neceſſity, before the houſe is worn out with fatigue. I begin by obſerving that,

whatever variety of ſentiment may have formerly prevailed with regard to the governments with whom we ought or ought not to treat—however various the objects may have been to which different men thought we ought preferably to look, for ſome time all have concurred in this, that the queſtion of peace and war had become a queſtion of terms. After the continental alliance had been diſſolved, whatever might be our wiſhes, nothing remained for us, but to procure juſt and honourable conditions of peace for ourſelves and the few allies who had not deſerted us. Whenever terms alone come to be conſidered, I declare myſelf to be one of thoſe who are more anxious as to the tone and character of the peace than as to any ſpecific object which may come to be diſputed between the contracting parties. I am far from thinking the terms are of ſmall importance: it is the duty of every miniſter to labour to procure the beſt poſſible for the ſtate to which he belongs; but I would rather accept terms ſhort of thoſe to which I think the country entitled, provided they are in no degree inconſiſtent with honour and independence, than riſk the reſult of the negotiation by preſſing any particular point. On that ground I would have acted when I had the honour of a ſeat in his majeſty's council, and I ſhould think that I acted unfairly if I did not apply the principle to another adminiſtration. By the preliminaries now ſubmitted to your conſideration, you have not gained every thing; but in my mind, the difference of the terms you have obtained, and thoſe you had a right to expect, is not to be compared with the evils which might have reſulted from being more peremptory in your demands. Upon this point I wiſh to have no reſerve to the houſe or to the country. What are thoſe terms to which we ought principally to look? We are not to make any new additions to our empire—we are not to inſiſt upon what we did not materially want, nor to ſeek to retain thoſe parts of our conqueſts which were altogether unconnected with our antient poſſeſſions. Our grand object was to add freſh ſecurity to our maritime ſtrength and commercial greatneſs. We are bound to conſult the intereſts of that which had carried us victorious through the awful ſtruggle in which we had been engaged, and which had enabled us to hold out a chance of ſalvation to the ſurrounding nations. The leading quarters of the world to which we were thus to turn our attention, were the Mediterranean, the Eaſt and the Weſt Indies. In two out of the three we have got all that we had a right to expect, and without undervaluing our acquiſitions in that quarter, or the glory of the conqueſt, I ſhall not be contradicted when I ſay that the Mediterranean is to us, when compared with the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, but of ſecondary importance. I am ſorry that it was not in our power to retain Malta, and ſtill more, that its fate is not more certainly marked out in the preliminary Treaty. Turning to the Eaſt Indies, I find ſubject of deep regret. I hope I am miſled, but from all I have been able to learn from thoſe beſt able to give information, I have been accuſtomed to ſet a much higher value upon the Cape of Good Hope than my noble friend. But ſtill I believe it of far inferior importance to Ceylon, which of all the places of the colonial poſſeſſions on the globe, to us is the moſt valuable, and gives to our empire in India a ſecurity which it has not known ſince its firſt eſtabliſhment. My hon. friend over the way (Mr. Grenville) cenſures the treaty becauſe it does not ſtipulate for the projected exchange of Cochin for one of our ſettlements in India. I feel the weight of the argument which has been adduced, that Cochin was declared to be eſſential to our ſafety by an illuſtrious character particularly converſant with the affairs of India—Why do I ſay particularly? There is no part of the intereſts of his country in any part of the globe, with which he is not intimately acquainted, and has not eſſentially promoted. He is now about to enjoy the beſt reward for his ſervices, by putting the finiſhing hand to a treaty which gives peace to the world. But I know that that illuſtrious nobleman has now changed his opinion of the importance of Cochin; and indeed it was quite impoſſible that he ſhould not. It was neceſſary that Berwick-upon-Tweed ſhould be kept a fortified town while the Scots were a ſeparate people, and in alliance with France; but of what importance is Berwick upon-Tweed now that the two nations are happily united? While Tippoo exiſted, the opportunity afforded to the French of coming to his aſſiſtance by the way of Cochin, was extremely to be dreaded; but now that he is no more, this ſtation is not much more valuable than any other in the peninſula. In a commercial point of view, Negapatam is much more deſirable. The moſt conſoling proſpect preſents itſelf on turning our view to the Weſt. Trinidad

I conſider as by far the moſt valuable iſland the fortune of war has placed in our hands, as it enabled us to concentre our poſſeſſions in that quarter of the world, and at a ſmall expence ſecure them from every danger, foreign and domeſtic. With reſpect to the terms of peace, as they regard ourſelves, I am perfectly ſatisfied. As they regard our allies, they are equally ſatisfactory. For the Porte we have done every thing we were bound to do, and a great deal more. That I may not repeat what has been already ſo ſtrongly urged, let me only remind gentlemen of the recognition obtained from France, of the Seven Iſlands. This republic may ſoon be of not much leſs importance than the Porte itſelf, and had the iſlands, agreeably to the treaty with Auſtria, remained in the hands of France, the very exiſtence of our ally would have been precarious. Naples, it is true, only deſerted our alliance through over-ruling neceſſity, but we have done as much for her as we could have done had the treaty between the two countries remained ſtrictly in force. For the king of Sardinia we could not pretend to ſtipulate, unleſs ſtanding by ourſelves, we ſhould pretend to dictate the limits of the continental powers; unleſs we could have removed the new king of Etruria; unleſs we could have diſſolved the Ciſalpine and Ligurian republics; unleſs we could have ſtripped France of the ſovereignty of Switzerland, we ſhould have conferred upon his Sardinian majeſty a very poor favour in procuring him the reſtoration of his capital. The province of Olivenza, ceded by Portugal, is of little moment; and, if natural boundaries are to be regarded, it belongs properly to Spain. It is not true that we offered Portugal our guarantee after France was ſatiated with her ſpoils. France refuſed to ratify that treaty which is now to be in force; and, had it not been for our interpoſition, would have inſiſted upon far more conſiderable ceſſions. We here gave proof not of punctilious good faith, but of dignified liberality. With reſpect to the Stadtholder, all that was propoſed at the treaty of Liſle was, that he ſhould receive a pecuniary indemnification for his loſſes: this, by means of the king of Pruſſia, he is probably on the eve of obtaining; and, at any rate, it is a thing of too trifling import to be allowed to endanger the ſucceſs of a negotiation for general peace. Thus, ſir, have we obtained, both for ourſelves and our allies, all that we could reaſonably hope for, or that honour required us to demand. Still diſſatisfaction is felt. Some ſay that we ought to have obtained a counterbalance to the immenſe aggrandizement of France. Sir, had we retained all that we agree to reſtore, I deny, that from the danger dreaded by theſe gentlemen, we ſhould have been at all ſecured. The ceded iſlands were not unimportant to our commerce; were not unimportant to our finance; but would they have maintained the integrity of Naples, of Portugal, or of Sardinia? would they have taken from the French one yard of the immenſe line of coaſt which cauſes ſuch diſmay? When you purchaſe wealth, you make the worſt of all purchaſes. You may ſay, I may have a little more commerce, and a little more finance, for a little more war, but you drive a ruinous bargain. Such a ſpeculation muſt at all times be bad, but particularly ſo after ſeveral years of war. I ſhall never be found, upon this occaſion, to urge the plea of neceſſity. We are far, indeed, from the end of our reſources, and were our independence threatened, the means we have in ſtore ought not to be ſpared to enable us to make the ſame exertions again when our honour and true intereſts are at ſtake. After ſeveral ingenious arguments to prove that we had nothing whatever to fear from France outſtripping us in trade and manufactures, Mr. Pitt proceeded to make ſome remarks on the French government and the chief conſul. I think, ſir, ſaid he, that all thoſe governments with which it has pleaſed the wiſdom of our own that we ſhould be at peace, are entitled to outward reſpect. I am for baniſhing all harſh language, all acrimonious epithets, all irritating alluſions. It would be hypocriſy in me to declare that all my opinions with regard to perſonal merit and demerit have undergone a change. My opinion of the paſt never can be altered, and if a laudable line of conduct is purſued for the future, I am afraid that I muſt conſider it to be dictated by intereſt more than by principle. I thought that the reſtoration of monarchy would have been a happy thing for France and for all Europe. I think ſo ſtill. I ſeek not to diſguiſe from the world that to my dying day I ſhall regret the diſappointment of my hopes. Happy ſhould I have been to have put together the fragments of that venerable edifice which had been ſo cruelly ſcattered. We have now, however, ſurvived the ravages of jacobiniſm, we have lived to ſee it loſe much of its virulence; we have ſeen it at any rate ſtripped of the deluſive colours which gave it its chief

powers of deſtruction; we now behold it held up as only capable to deſtroy; we can prove by example that its plans are ſure to end in the eſtabliſhment of a military deſpotiſm. My noble friend has ſaid enough to allay all apprehenſion with regard to the aggrandizement of France. However coloſſal her power may be, our beſt means of combating it will be found in our commercial wealth, our national ſpirit, and maritime greatneſs. Mr. Pitt then enumerated the advantages we had gained by the union with Ireland, by our naval and military reputation, and the conſolidation of our Indian empire, and after predicting to the country, if it was true to itſelf, a long train of proſperity and happineſs, concluded by giving his hearty aſſent to the motion.

Mr. Fox ſaid, Never ſince I have been a member of this houſe, did I give my ſupport with greater ſatisfaction to any meaſure, than to the preliminaries of peace between Great Britain and the French republic; and I think that the gentlemen who framed the motion have acted judiciouſly and properly in avoiding all topics that could have embarraſſed the aſſent which gentlemen might otherwiſe be inclined to give to the motion. For my own part, I am ready to confeſs that even if the epithet honourable, which with ſome might have produced differences of opinion, would not have had much weight with me, for the peace muſt be honourable, or it does not merit to be ſubmitted to a vote at all. I will not inquire whether the epithets ſafe and honourable be convertible, but this I will aſſert, that to individuals, and far more to nations, honour is the moſt eſſential means of ſafety—without honour there can be no foundation for that reſpect at home, that confidence abroad, which are neceſſary to the true greatneſs of a nation. With reſpect to the epithet of glorious, which the noble lord rejects as inapplicable to any peace, I will not contend with him. This I am ſure, however, that no peace can be glorious unleſs it has followed a glorious war, a deſcription which, in the original principle and the final reſult, can by no means be applicable to the preſent. The great points for conſideration in forming an opinion of the peace, are two—firſt, generally, whether peace on the conditions obtained is preferable to a continuance of the war? and ſecondly, whether better terms could have been obtained? Unqueſtionably if better terms of peace could have been procured without riſk, miniſters would merit cenſure if they did not exert every effort to procure them. But was that to be expected in the preſent inſtance? I rejoiced to hear the noble lord, whoſe ſpeech I in general, admired ſo much, lay down principles ſo liberal reſpecting what may be gained or conceded by great nations. We have gained Ceylon and Trinidad, nor do I regret the ceſſion of the Cape, as I conceive that, from its deſtination, we ſhall without expence inſure all the benefits it is calculated to afford. Perhaps if there were any part of the ceſſions which I regret, it is Malta, becauſe a place of ſuch ſtrength and importance in the Mediterranean muſt have been highly beneficial to our intereſts in any future war; and though I hope the peace will be permanent, yet we cannot lay out of view the poſſibility of a new war. There was no part of the noble lord's ſpeech with which I more fully coincided than that in which he ſpoke of the *unſatisfactory* ſtate of the continent, an epithet ſelected with ſingular juſtice. Much as that unſatisfactory ſtate was to be regretted, it was ſuch as there was no hopes of changing for the better. I concur in the opinion that nothing could be more chimerical than the project of invading Great Britain; but is there no other part of the Britiſh empire in Europe where the attempt might threaten more danger? The truth is, however, that France and England were in ſuch a ſituation that they could not produce any conſiderable impreſſion on each other. In Europe we could not touch her—in her colonies we had done every thing we could do. In ſuch a ſituation, to conclude peace on the preſent terms was to conſult the dignity of the nation, becauſe, to have attached too much importance to trifling intereſts, might have riſked the calamity of another year of war. Not that I think reſources might not have been found: I ſee reſources that might have been rendered available. The income tax, pledged for 55 millions, might be pledged for 55 millions more; but theſe reſources ought, as a right hon gentleman juſtly conceived, be reſerved, ſhould it be neceſſary for the defence of our honour and independence. Some regretted that the peace was glorious to France; if the peace could be glorious to France without being diſhonourable to this country, it would not give me any concern that it ſhould be ſo. Mens feelings on that ſubject muſt depend in their conception of the war—The object, not indeed as a *ſine qua non*, was the reſtoration of the ac-

curſed houſe of Bourbon; and to him it was a recommendation of the peace that this object had failed. Had that object ſucceeded, it muſt have been attended with the moſt fatal effects to the general liberties of mankind. It would have been followed by quarrels among princes, not of their eſtates, but the mutual oppreſſion of their ſubjects. To the people of this country it muſt have been followed with the moſt deplorable conſequences. Had ſuch coalitions been carried on ſucceſsfully in former times, does any man think that in the laſt century the liberties of England could have been preſerved againſt the houſe of Stuart?—Does any man think that Hampden cou'd have reſcued the people from illegal ſhip money, or that, in a word, the revolution could have been brought about? The reſtoration of the Bourbons, therefore, had it been effected by a ſucceſsful coalition, would have been the greateſt misfortune that ever threatened this country. Mr. Fox here took a view of the origin of the war, and contended that it was a war of aggreſſion on the part of this country, becauſe miniſters took no ſteps to procure reparation or diſavowal for any acts of which they complained. Reſpecting the terms then, and the tone of the treaty, he agreed with the noble ſecretary; he commended the manner in which he laid down the principle of conduct, in a mixed ſyſtem of firmneſs and conciliation. With reſpect to the time, he could not agree with the noble lord, as he was convinced that even before the war, had it been adviſeable to accept ceſſions, better terms could have been procured than now. This fact he had the beſt reaſon to believe to be true. At that period ſatisfaction might have been obtained for Holland and Flanders. At every period ſince, better terms than the preſent were always in our power. The negotiation at Paris broke off upon the extravagant pretenſions of miniſters, and in the failure of that of Liſle, Mr. Pitt had candidly confeſſed, that he trembled leſt it ſhould ſucceed, and employed it merely to facilitate the adoption of his ſolid ſyſtem of finance. But even if all theſe had been doubtful, the conduct of miniſters in rejecting Bonaparte's overtures in 1800, proved how ardently they perſevered in the plan for reſtoring the houſe of Bourbon, whenever they enjoyed the the leaſt glimpſe of good fortune. Could they doubt that much better terms could have been obtained at that period? It is true that Egypt had been recovered by the unexampled gallantry of our troops; but who was ſo fond of military glory as to purchaſe it without neceſſity; Egypt might have been ours by the capitulation of El-Ariſh. But it was ſaid at that moment that we were to *pauſe!* We did pauſe, and the pauſe coſt us 73 millions of money, beſide the lives of thouſands. That fatal pauſe coſt a ſum which exceeded the amount of the national debt from the revolution to the beginning of the year 1755. Thus Mr. Pitt's pauſe had coſt more money than all the duke of Marlborough's victories, and thoſe of king William beſide. At laſt the noble lord diſcovers that the third coalition is not to be attempted; but not to ſay more, was not the experience of the firſt ſufficient, and would not the argument have applied as well then as at preſent. But the noble lord ſaid, that the danger of French principles was extinct, and that we had only to dread the power of the republic. Undoubtedly no man felt more ſtrongly than he did the misfortune to England and to Europe, from the unſatisfactory ſtate of the continent; but it was not the peace but the war that had produced ſo fatal an aggrandizement. It was the meaſures of the right hon. gentleman which had excited an irreſiſtible ſpirit in France—a ſpirit of proud independence. The injuſtice of the attack, lent extraordinary vigour to France. All men were fired with devotion to their country, and the thoughts of independence inſpired an energy which nothing could ſubdue. With reſpect to the future, he was of opinion that to enjoy the bleſſings of peace, ſmall eſtabliſhments were neceſſary. It was in commercial reſources that we were to meet the aggrandizement of France. To cope with France in expenſive armies and navies, would be the ſureſt way to unnerve our exertions, and to reduce us from a great people into a ſubordination to France. He hoped that the new order of things would cheriſh diſpoſitions mutually pacific, and that the reſtleſs and hoſtile ſpirit which had actuated the Bourbons againſt us for ſo long a period would be changed. God forbid we ſhould inſult that family in their misfortunes! but, when the intereſts of the country were at ſtake, he could not but animadvert on the little ſecurity we could have for repoſe, were that family replaced upon the throne. The trade of France had ſuffered much, and was nearly annihilated; but inland the interior of France was not in a deſolate ſtate. Many of the abuſes of the old adminiſtration,

Feudality, corvées, &c. &c. were abolished, and a system of taxation, affording no exemption from payment, was adopted. After the peace, the commerce of this country might suffer a slight diminution, as had been found in former cases; but, upon the whole, he was inclined to believe that peace would give it a new impulse. The example of an active, intelligent, literary nation, would stimulate all our powers, and present new encouragements to our industry.

The chancellor of the exchequer observed, that after the able arguments that had been advanced in favour of the question, it was difficult to find any topics that had not before been alluded to. It had always appeared to him, as well as to many others, that the duty of negociation commenced when all hopes of continental aid in checking the power of France were at an end. His predecessors had been of this opinion, and had twice sought a negociation, though their efforts had been unsuccessful. As soon, therefore, has is majesty had been graciously pleased to deliver the authority of the country into the hands of the present ministers, they had thought it necessary to follow the same example. They had commenced a negociation, and their efforts had been crowned with success. A comparison had been made between the terms which were proposed at Lisle, and those which had now been agreed upon; but it should be recollected, that since the negociation at Lisle, the national debt of this country had increased no less than a hundred and fifty millions. At that negociation it was proposed to restore to France and her allies all that had been taken from them, a measure that must have been more dangerous to us at that time than it could be at present, because Tippoo Sultaun was then in force, and in connexion with France. In the Mediterranean, we did not then stipulate for the establishment of the republic of the Seven Islands, which now form a barrier to Turkey on the eastern side. In the West Indies we were in possession of Cape Nicola Mole and Jeremie, in addition to our other conquests: them we agreed to give up, keeping only the Cape and Trinidad. Upon the whole, he was decidedly of opinion, that the terms now obtained, were more favourable for the country than those proposed at Lisle. He then entered into an examination of the present articles, which he contended were calculated to effect the permanent security of our eastern and western possessions. To those who wished to continue the war for the purpose of reducing the power of France, he wished to state, that another campaign could not be made at a less expence than forty millions, and a perpetual annuity (except for the operation of the sinking fund) of two millions per annum, in addition to their other burdens. Even certain success would not have been worth such a price. He perfectly concurred with his noble friend in thinking that we ought to watch with care any tendency to increase the colonial system of this country. He was by no means satisfied of the wisdom of those whose object seemed to be to prevent France from becoming a commercial power; he wished to see France possessed of commerce, he wished to see her possessed of interests which would make her conscious of our maritime power. He wished to see her possessed of interests which, in the case of an unfortunate rupture, we might have the means of attacking. A right hon. friend of his used to say, that in this contest we had gained all which we had not lost, but in concluding this treaty we had acted with the greatest honour and good faith to our allies; we had preserved all our ancient dominions, and had made important acquisitions both in the east and in the west. Independant of all this, an arrangement had been made with the powers of the north, by which our rights had been fully recognised and secured; and finally, that great and most beneficial measure, the union with Ireland, had been carried into effect.—We had closed the contest with consolidated power and with augmented means, which he was convinced would make the power of this country equal to that of France. He was ready, however, to acknowledge, that it depended upon the wisdom of government and of that house, whether this peace should be a curse or a blessing. On the part of the king's present ministers, he could only say, that the peace which had been made honesty, should be kept faithfully. No encouragement should be given to any person, whatever there character might be, to subvert the present government of France. It would require the utmost caution to accomplish all the objects which they had in view, they must adopt a conduct of caution, of prudence, and of jealousy. And he was bound in candour and fairness to state, that it would be necessary to provide new means of security, such as were never before known in time of peace. If he were asked whe-

ther this was founded upon a ſuſpicion of the ſincerity of the enemy, he would anſwer no: but he could not look upon the map of Europe, without being convinced that ſuch was the conduct which their duty preſcribed to them. The ſyſtem to be adopted muſt be one plainly directed to the ſecurity of the country; not calculated to promote patronage or to excite jealouſies. He flattered himſelf that when the ſubject came to be inveſtigated, it would not be found difficult to adopt a ſyſtem of defence which would be found fully adequate to the ſecurity of the country. He could not help expreſſing, upon this occaſion, his ſenſe of the danger to which this country would be expoſed if proper meaſures were not adapted for its ſecurity.

At four o'clock in the morning the queſtion on the addreſs was put and carried without a diviſion.

## *STATE PAPER.*

THE following is a copy of the memorial preſented by his ſerene highneſs the prince of Orange to lord Hawkeſbury, previous to his leaving this country:

The prince of Orange being informed that the ratifications of the preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majeſty and the French republic, ſigned on the 1ſt inſtant, have been exchanged on the 10th; and thoſe articles, as publiſhed by government, having thus come to his knowledge, thinks he ought not to delay any longer, in a conjuncture ſo important to his intereſts and thoſe of his houſe, to expreſs, without reſerve, his ſentiments and his wiſhes to his majeſty.

The unfortunate circumſtances which obliged the prince of Orange and his family to repair to England in the year 1795, are too well known to make it neceſſary to renew the ſtatement of them in this place.

After having been received by his majeſty with the moſt affecting kindneſs, the prince of Orange experienced no leſs convincing proofs of his majeſty's goodneſs toward him during his ſtay in this country, where he has conſtantly been treated with the moſt generous hoſpitality. On every occaſion he received unequivocal aſſurances and marks of the unvaried intereſt which his majeſty and his government continued to take, not only in what related to himſelf and to his family, but alſo to the numerous and faithful adherents of the houſe of Orange, and the ancient conſtitution of the republic of the united provinces. Theſe marks of intereſt had ſo often been repeated, that the prince of Orange has not even conceived it to be neceſſary for him to make any formal demand, founded upon the ſolemn engagements by which Great Britain guaranteed in 1788, the Stadtholderate, and the other dignities hereditary to his houſe,

The prince of Orange has ſeen with great concern the courſe of events lead gradually to a ſtate of things very different from that under which thoſe engagements had been formed, and by which the probability of their being completely fulfilled was from day to day diminiſhing. Nevertheleſs, as long as the war continued, he could never prevail upon himſelf to give up that hope entirely; but he awaited in ſilence the final iſſue of events. Now that the preliminaries of peace are concluded on the conditions known to the public, without the prince of Orange having received any information that any thing has been ſtipulated with reſpect to himſelf, he thinks himſelf under the obligation of breaking the ſilence he had hitherto thought fit to obſerve, and conſiders it as his indiſpenſible duty to recommend in the ſtrongeſt and moſt preſſing manner to the king's ſolicitude and powerful protection, on the approaching conferences for the formation of the definitive treaty, his own intereſts, thoſe of his houſe, and of a conſiderable number of his countrymen, who are become the unfortunate victims of their unſhaken zeal for his perſon and his cauſe —of their tried fidelity to the ancient government of their native country, and of their attachment to that ſyſtem which has ſo long and ſo cloſely united the republic of the United Provinces to Great Britain.

The prince of Orange thinks it would be injuring the generous feelings of his majeſty and his government to dwell upon the motives which induce him to make this requeſt. He has no doubt of his majeſty's finding them in his own royal breaſt, and he flatters himſelf that the diſpoſitions he hopes to find on this ſubject will add ſtill more to the manifeſt obligations he owes to the king, and of which he will never loſe the grateful remembrance.

The prince of Orange requeſts lord Hawkeſbury to lay the preſent note before his majeſty, and to inform him of his majeſty's intiontions with reſpect to its contents. He takes this opportunity to aſſure lord Hawkeſbury of his perfect conſideration.

Hampton-court, Oct. 13, 1801.

(Signed) W. PRINCE OF ORANGE.

## *INTELLIGENCE FROM EGYPT.*

From the London Gazette, Nov. 14.

Downing-ſtreet, November 14.

DISPATCHES (in duplicate) of which the following are a copy and extracts have been received at the office of the right honourable lord Hobart, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, brought by colonel Abercromby, from lieutenant general the honourable ſir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. commanding his majeſty's troops ſerving in Egypt.

Head-quarters, Camp before Alexandria,

My Lord, Auguſt 19.

The laſt diviſion of the French troops who ſurrendered at Cairo, ſailed from the bay of Aboukir a few days ago. There have been embarked in all near thirteen thouſand five hundred perſons. The garriſon of Cairo conſiſted of about eight thouſand troops of all deſcriptions, fit for duty, not including one thouſand ſick, and a conſiderable number of invalids. The total amounts to near ten thouſand ſoldiers; among whom there was a very ſmall proportion of Greeks and Copts, not more than four or five hundred men: the remainder were all French. The other perſons embarked were followers of the army, and attached to it in various civil capacities.

Major-general Cradock having been confined at Cairo by illneſs, I entruſted the command of the troops to major-general Moore, who, during a long march of a very novel and critical nature, diſplayed much judgment, and conducted himſelf in the moſt able and judicious manner. Notwithſtanding the mixture of Turks, Britiſh, and French, the utmoſt regularity was preſerved, and no one diſagreeable circumſtance ever took place. My preſence at Cairo was rendered indiſpenſably neceſſary, by ſome arrangements which I was obliged to make with his highneſs the grand vizier.

Major-general Baird, after having ſtruggled through many difficulties in paſſing the deſert, and from want of boats to deſcend the Nile, has at length arrived at Cairo, with the greateſt part of the troops under his command, and I imagine he will reach Roſetta in the courſe of a few days: he has been directed to detach a certain number of troops to Damietta, and to leave a garriſon at Giza.

We two days ago commenced our operations againſt Alexandria; as yet no event of any conſequence has taken place; we have loſt a few men, and taken a few priſoners.

Major-general Coote has been detached with a conſiderable corps to the weſtward, in order to inveſt the town completely on that ſide, and to cut off the communication of the enemy with the Arabs, who have been in the habit of ſupplying them with ſmall quantities of cattle and other kinds of freſh proviſions. General Coote's firſt operation will be directed againſt Marabout, a caſtle on an iſland at the entrance of the old harbour of Alexandria.

I cannot conclude this letter without ſtating to your lordſhip the many obligations I have to lord Keith, and the navy, for the great exertions they have uſed in forwarding to us the neceſſary ſupplies, and from the fatigue they have undergone in the late embarkation of a conſiderable number of troops and ſtores, who were embarked on the New Lake, and proceeded to the weſtward under the orders of major-general Coote.

The utmoſt diſpatch has alſo been uſed in ſending the French troops, lately captured to France; which, in our preſent poſition, was a ſervice of the moſt eſſential conſequence.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. H. HUTCHINSON,
Lieutenant-general.

[General Hutchinſon's ſecond letter merely alludes to the ſtrength of the fortifications of Alexandria, and the arrival of the reinforcements from England, Minorca, and Malta, in a perfect ſtate of health, order, and diſcipline.]

Admiralty-office, November 14.

Copy of a Letter from the right hon. lord Keith, Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated Foudroyant, Bay of Aboukir, September 2.

Sir,

I have the honour and ſatisfaction of acquainting you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that the important object of this expedition is fully accompliſhed; a capitulation (of which a copy is incloſed) has been this day ſigned, providing for the delivery to the allies, to-morrow, of the enemy's entrenched camp on the eaſtern ſide of Alexandria, and the fort Triangulaire, and other important poſts on the weſtern ſide; and for that of the town itſelf, the public effects, and the ſhipping in the harbour,

at the expiration of ten days, or ſooner if the enemy's troops can be ſooner embarked; as ſoon as I can obtain returns of the ſhips and effects, they ſhall be tranſmitted to you. The merchant veſſels are very numerous, and one old Venetian ſhip of the line, with the French frigates Egyptienne, Juſtice, and Regenerée, and ſome corvettes, are known to be in the port.

Their lordſhips will not fail to have obſerved from my former details, the meritorious conduct of the officers and men who have been from time to time employed on the various duties which the debarkation of the army and a co-operation with them as acquired. Though opportunities for brilliant exertion have been few ſince the 8th of March, the deſire for participating in it has been unremitted. But the nature of this expedition has demanded from moſt of the officers and ſeamen of the fleet, and particularly from thoſe of the troop-ſhips, bomb-veſſels, and tranſports, the endurance of labour, fatigue, and privation, far beyond what I have witneſſed before, and which I verily believe to have exceeded all former example; and it has been encountered and ſurmounted with a degree of reſolution and perſeverance which merits my higheſt praiſe, and gives both officers and men a juſt claim to the protection of their lordſhips, and the approbation of their country. The number of officers to whom I owe this tribute of approbation, does not admit of my mentioning them by name, but moſt of the captains of the troop ſhips have been employed in the ſuperintendance of theſe duties, and I have had repeated and urgent offers of voluntary ſervice from all. The agents for tranſports have conducted themſelves with laudable diligence and activity in the ſervice of the ſeveral departments to which they are attached, and diſplayed the greateſt exertion and ability in overcoming the numerous difficulties with which they had to contend.

The captains and commanders of the ſhips appointed for guarding the port, have executed that tedious and anxious duty with diligence and ſucceſs; during my abſence from the ſquadron the blockade has been conducted much to my ſatisfaction by rear admiral ſir R. Bickerton; and juſtice requires me to mention, that when I was with the ſquadron, captain Wilſon of the Truſty, was unwearied in his attention to the direction of all the duties in this bay.

The captain Pacha has uniformly manifeſted the moſt anxious deſire of contributing, by every means in his power, to the promotion of the ſervice. Having been generally on ſhore with his troops, the ſhips have been ſubmitted, by his orders, to my direction, and the officers have paid the moſt reſpectful attention to the inſtructions they have received from me.

Captain ſir Sidney Smith, who has ſerved with ſuch diſtinguiſhed reputation in this country, having applied to be the bearer of the diſpatches announcing the expulſion of the enemy, I have complied with his requeſt; and I beg to refer their lordſhips to that active and intelligent officer for any particular information relative to this or other parts of the country, on which he has had opportunities of making remarks.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) KEITH.

Lord Keith's letter, of September 10, ſtates the diſtribution of the veſſels of war in the port of Alexandria as follows:

His highneſs the captain Pacha and lord Keith have agreed to receive the enemy's ſhips as under, viz.

Captain Pacha.—Cauſe, 64; Juſtice, 46, No. 1. Venetian, 26.

Lord Keith.—L'Egyptienne, 50; Regenerée, 32; No. 2. Venetian, 26.

The Turkiſh corvettes to be given to the captain Pacha; but to be previouſly valued.

[The Gazette alſo contains the official details of a ſortie made by the garriſon of Porto Ferrajo, on the 14th of September.]

## *HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.*

OCTOBER 29.

YESTERDAY at the Old Bailey, the ſeſſions of oyer and terminer commenced before judges Heath and Thompſon, the recorder, lord-mayor, and other city officers.

NOVEMBER 3.

Yeſterday morning, a few minutes after eight o'clock, James Leigh, the Chelſea penſioner, and Richard Stark, who were both convicted of murder at the Old Bailey ſeſſions, and ordered for execution, were launched into eternity, oppoſite the debtor's door of Newgate, amid the execrations of many thouſand ſpectators, who were aſſembled as early as half paſt ſeven o'clock, to witneſs their behaviour at the place of execution.

NOVEMBER 6.

Yeſterday was received the Hamburgh mail, due on Sunday laſt. The only intereſting article it contains is one from Berlin, of the 31ſt of October, ſtating, that in conſequence of the reſtoration of peace, the motives which led to the poſſeſſion of Hanover no longer exiſt, and that his majeſty has agreed immediately to evacuate that electorate. In conſequence of this reſolution, orders will be forwarded without delay to the commander of the Pruſſian troops to withdraw from the Hanoverian territories. According to the ſame accounts, the courts of London and Berlin will enter on negociations for the removal of every difference which may at preſent exiſt.

Yeſterday the ſeſſions cloſed at the Old Bailey, when the following capital convicts received judgment of death:—William Keepe, for taking a bank note out of a letter; Thomas Gout and John Salmon, for robberies, by extorting money under pretence of accuſing perſons of an unnatural crime; William Cooke, for a burglary in the ſhop of William Muſton; Charles Everett, alias Everard, and James Everett, alias Lloyd, for a burglary in the dwelling-houſe of John Maze; John Potter, for a rape on an infant under ten years of age; Thomas Smith, alias Thomas Scott Smith, for a forgery on meſſrs. Smith, Payne, and Smith; Henry Ellis and James Price, for horſe-ſtealing; Richard Grover, for robbing a woman in Stepney-fields; and John Manby, for a burglary.

NOVEMBER 10.

The celebration of Lord-mayor's-day yeſterday was as magnificent as it has been or ſeveral years. The armourers company were invited to come forth capariſoned as of yore, but they refuſed, and his lordſhip was obliged to provide a man in armour himſelf.

The knight was fitted with a ſuit of armour from the tower, and was mounted on a very fine dark gelding, the head, main, and ſhoulders of the animal, covered alſo with armour, ornamented with roſes of poppy and white ribands, ſilver fringe, and plumes of oſtrich feathers.

The militia of the city were drawn out, and colonel Newnham rode at the head of the battalion of which the lord-mayor is the ſecond in command. The Salters company attended their brother in their coaches. Their grand ſtandard made a fine appearance.

The proceſſion commenced at twelve o'clock from Guildhall.—His lordſhip and the aldermen Boydell, Watſon, ſir C. Glyn, H. C. Coombe, ſir W. Herne, C. Flower, C. Price, Cadell, Clarke, Ainſley, ſir J. Anderſon, Hibbert, ſheriffs Rawlins and Cox, the recorder of London, Mr. common ſerjeant, the members of the common council, and the city council, proceeded in their carriages to the Three Cranes, where they took water in the city barge, attended by the Goldſmiths, Stationers, Fiſhmongers, Apothecaries, Ironmongers, Drapers, Merchant Taylors, and Salters.

On his lordſhip's arriving at Weſtminſter-hall, the lord chief juſtices of the courts of King's-bench and Common-pleas, the maſter of the rolls, &c. being ſeated in their official capacities, the chief magiſtrate, after ſaluting the different courts, invited the law officers to dine at Guildhall.

The lord-mayor and aldermen having returned to Blackfriars, were eſcorted to the hall by the grenadiers and light infantry of the eaſt and weſt London militia.

Viſcount admiral lord Nelſon, accompanied by ſir William Hamilton, in ſir William's carriage, was drawn to Guildhall by the populace.

The late lord-mayor was received by the people with juſt marks of affection. They took the horſes from his carriage, and drew him to Guildhall. They ſhowed the ſame attention to his predeceſſor, alderman Coombe, whoſe horſes they alſo took out, and drew him in ſtate to the hall.

Many perſonages of the firſt rank attended at Guildhall, amohg whom were, the lord chancellor, duke of Portland, the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, right hon. H. Addington, lord Hobart, the maſter of the rolls, the ſecretary at war, the attorney and ſolicitor-generals, earl Moira, earl Pomfret, lord viſcount Hood, lord Grantley, lord Leſlie, ſir W. Scott, ſir A. Hammond, earl Harrington, lord Nelſon, ſir W. Hamilton, lord Holland, Mr. Erſkine, Mr. Tierney, Mr. Vanſittart, Mr. Heley Addington, Mr. Bragge, and about twenty of the aldermen; beſide ſeven judges, moſt of the foreign miniſters, and Mr. and Mrs. Otto.

About nine o'clock, the lady mayoreſs was conducted to the ball-room, by lord Leſlie, who opened the ball with her ladyſhip. Mrs. Otto was conducted to the ball-room by alderman Flower.

The hall was brilliantly illuminated in honour of the peace. Over the huſtings was a beautiful tranſparent painting of

Peace, receiving the congratulations of the Repreſentatives of the four Quarters of the World. Over the principal dinner table was another tranſparency, with the words 'Peace and Feſtivity.'

The female nobility were moſt elegantly attired in the faſhions for the preſent month: their head dreſſes conſiſting of *tiaras* of oſtrich feathers and gold ſprays, alſo bandeaus of diamonds and ſpangles, with the words *Vive la Paix*.

NOVEMBER 11.

The following is a liſt of French, Spaniſh, and Dutch ſhips, loſt, taken, and deſtroyed, from the commencement of the war in 1793, to October 1801:

| | French. | Dutch. | Spaniſh. | Tot. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ships of the line | 45 | 25 | 11 | 81 |
| Fifties — | 2 | 1 | 0 | 3 |
| Frigates — | 133 | 31 | 20 | 184 |
| Sloops — | 161 | 32 | 55 | 248 |
| Grand total — | | | | 516 |

Beſide 934 privateers, and 5,453 merchantmen.

NOVEMBER 12.

Yeſterday morning was executed in the Old Bailey, purſuant to his ſentence, Thomas Thomas, convicted of forgery.

Yeſterday afternoon the committee of the holders of the exchequer bills waited on the chancellor of the exchequer, at his houſe in Downing-ſtreet, to give in their propoſals reſpecting the funding of the exchequer bills, when the terms mentioned in the following notice (filed laſt night at the Stock-exchange coffee-houſe) were agreed to:

'Downing-ſtreet, eight o'clock, Nov. 11.

'The undermentioned are the terms agreed upon between the right hon. the chancellor of the exchrquer, and us the committee appointed to wait upon him, this day, for ſettling the terms of funding 8,500,000l of exchequer bills:

'For each 100l of principal, the holders are to receive the undermentioned ſums of ſtock, which we have eſtimated at the following prices:

| | | £. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 25 Conſols, at 68⅜ | - | 17 | 1 | 10½ |
| 25 Reduced, at 67⅞ | - | 16 | 16 | 10½ |
| 25 New 5 per cent. 99 | - | 24 | 15 | 0 |
| 50 4 per cent. 84¼ | - | 42 | 7 | 6 |
| 15 9d Long ann. 19⅛ | - | 1 | 14 | 4 |
| | £. | 102 | 15 | 7 |

'And the proprietors to have the option of ſubſcribing 50l, additional for every 100l bill, to be applied to redeeming the ſum of about 2,400,000l exchequer bills, to be carried to the exchequer, on or before the 24th of November, and the intereſt to be calculated to that day, and paid in money. The depoſit of 25 per cent. on the additional 50l for each 100l, of exchequer bills, to be paid at the time of leaving the bills for payment. Twenty-five per cent. to be paid on the 18th of December, and the remaining 50l per cent. on the 15th of January.

'We ſend this notice that the conditions may be made public before the hour of buſineſs to-morrow morning,

'COUTTS TROTTER,
'MARK SPROT,
'AB. GOLDSMID,
'CHARLES HORNYOLD.'

Such is the bargain that Mr. Addington has made.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| He has funded the bills on terms which bear an intereſt of | | 4 | 16 9 |
| The new ſtock of all kinds created is | - 10,625,000 | 0 | 0 |
| And the long annuity for 59 years will be | - 7,437 | 10 | 0 |

The intereſt due upon the bills is to be paid in money when they are delivered into the exchequer; and the dividends on the new funded ſtock are to be paid at the reſpective periods of the ſeveral ſtocks.

NOVEMBER 14.

PEDESTRIAN WAGER.—Some time ago, Mr. Barclay made a match of 5,000l a ſide, or 10,000l in the whole, with Mr. Fletcher, that he would go on foot ninety miles in 21½ ſucceſſive hours. Mr. Barclay ſtarted on Monday night, at twelve o'clock, at Ayton, on the road from York to Hull, about fifteen miles from the former city. He walked a mile out and a mile in, the mile of the road on which he walked being well lighted with lamps. The following letter gives an account of his having won his match:—'I have juſt returned from witneſſing the match. Mr. Barclay has won. He finiſhed his walking at twenty-two minutes, four ſeconds, paſt eight o'clock laſt evening, being one hour, ſeven minutes, and fifty-ſix ſeconds, within the time allowed. He executed the match in a capital ſtile. He ſtopped ſix times to refreſh and change his clothes, which generally took him from 12½ to 15 minutes. The weather has been particularly favourable, except from four to eight o'clock yeſterday morning, when it grew hazy. This rendered him rather dull. Betting —2 to 1 and 7 to 4 in his favour at four and eight this morning. At eleven o'clock, when he had gone fifty miles, 3 to 1 he won; when he had gone ſixty miles, 5

and 4 to 1; when he had gone ſeventy, 7 and 6 to 1 he won. The latter part of his walking, 10 and 15 to 1. A great concourſe of company attended, who were particularly attentive that he ſhould meet with no interruption. They ſeemed all highly pleaſed that he had won. At the cloſe he was kuzzaed by the crowd, and carried about on their ſhoulders in triumph.'

Mr. Barclay has been in training ſince the beginning of September, under Mr. Smith, an old farmer, in Yorkſhire. Smith made him live upon raw meat and hard food, and do all ſorts of hard work.

Bank of England, November 12.

The court of directors of the governor and company of the Bank of England, give notice, that Pineau and Thomas Triquet, having been lately appointed Caſhiers, in the room of Iſaac Padman, reſigned, and Thomas Higgs, deceaſed; and Nicholas Pamphilion and Samuel Hulme, ſigner of bank notes of 1l and 2l, in the room of the ſaid Peter Pineau and Thomas Triquet. The following is a liſt of the Caſhiers, and other perſons who are now authorized to ſign bank of England notes, viz.

The Caſhiers who ſign Bank Notes of 5l value each, and upward.

Abraham Newland, Robert Aſlett, Owen Gething, Edmund Lewin, Giles Collins, William Dunn, John Still, Chriſtopher Olier, John Waldron, Williams Mullens, William Johnſon, Francis Kenſall, Richard Bridger, Jeremiah Kelly, Charles Smith Underhill, Iſaac Field, Peter Pineau, and Thomas Triquet.

Perſons who ſign Bank Notes of 1l and 2l value each.

William Garrett, James Longman, Gerard Thomas South, James Barber, George Nicholls, Alexander Hooper, John Clack, William Caulier, William George, Iſaac Booth, Richard Fawcett, Charles Phillips, Charles Watts, Nicholas Pamphilion, and Samuel Hulme.

ROBERT BESI, ſecretary.

NOVEMBER 20.

A court martial on vice-admiral ſir William Parker, was held at Portſmouth, on the 13th and 14th inſtant, on board the Gladiator, admiral Paſley, preſident. After hearing the whole caſe on both ſides, the court was of opinion that the admiral was juſtified in ſending the America and Cleopatra to the Weſt Indies; but that he was indiſcreet in the detailed inſtructions for their return within the limits of their ſtation; but the court declared the general character of ſir William to be ſuch as to preclude the idea of his having been influenced by any motive not connected with the good of his majeſty's ſervice, and therefore moſt honourably acquitted him. The preſident, admiral Paſley, complimented him in the handſomeſt manner, returning him his ſword; the bells of Portſmouth were rung on the occaſion, and the many friends of this reſpected character were eager to congratulate him on the very honourable termination of this affair.

In a caſe that was argued on Friday in the court of common pleas, the judges were unanimouſly of opinion, that a tender of bank notes in payment is not *generally* a good tender, though the legiſlature had declared it to be good under particular circumſtances, ſuch as to prevent an arreſt. It had been contended by counſel, that the meaning of the act of parliament would be imperfect if it was not conſtrued generally.

Lord Alvanley ſaid, it was not the buſineſs of the judges to ſupply defects in acts of parliament; they ſat there only to interpret, adminiſter, and apply them. To do more would be to act in a legiſlative, not in a judicial capacity.

Mr. juſtice Heath was of opinion, that the legiſlature had in view only to provide for the exigencies of a particular caſe, when it had declared bank notes a good tender in that caſe. The example of a neighbouring country had ſhown the great and multiplied evils that muſt reſult from making paper money, in all inſtances, a good tender. That country, after labouring for a conſiderable time under the diſtreſſes ariſing from ſuch a meaſure, was at length, though ſtill under the preſſure of the deepeſt poverty, obliged to appeal it.

Mr juſtice Chambre ſaid, that the legiſlature, in declaring bank notes a good tender in one particular caſe, clearly conveyed an idea that they were not to be conſidered a good tender in any other caſe. A ſpecial pleader had quaintly ſaid, that a plea of *tender* was a very *tender plea*. The legiſlature had innovated on the old law, in declaring bank notes a good tender in the particular caſe, and it certainly had gone far enough in doing ſo. To do more, would be attended with miſchief.

NOVEMBER 23.

Tueſday the lord-mayor held a court of aldermen at Guildhall.—His lordſhip addreſſed the aldermen, as is uſual on holding his firſt court, in a ſhort ſpeech, and concluded by requeſting their aſſiſtance

and advice during his holding the high office of chief magiſtrate.

The thanke of the court were unanimouſly voted to ſir William Staines, knt. late lord-mayor.

The ſheriffs were requeſted not to ſuffer any perſon to enter the gaol of Newgate, during the time of preaching the condemned ſermons, or other divine ſervice, without their ſpecial permiſſion, excepting the magiſtrates.

Thurſday, a court of common-council was held at Guildhall.—It being the firſt court in the mayoralty, the lord-mayor made a ſpeech, in which he hoped he ſhould have the aſſiſtance of the court in conducting the buſineſs of the office, which he pledged himſelf to do to the utmoſt of his abilities.

The thanks of the court were voted to ſir William Staines, the late lord-mayor. Mr. James Dixon, of Tower-ward, addreſſed the court, and introduced ſeveral motions of thanks to lord Keith, ſir J. H. Hutchinſon, &c. for the ſervices rendered their country; alſo, for a ſword to be preſented to each of the above gentlemen, of one hundred guineas value; which were unanimouſly agreed to.

The following is the copy of a circular letter from the ſecretary of the commiſſioner of cuſtoms, relative to the trade between Great Britain and Ireland:

Collector and Comptroller,

Gentlemen,

Doubts having ariſen whether the ſeveral acts of parliament, prohibiting the importation of ſpirits and certain other goods, in veſſels not under a certain tonnage, or in caſks or packages not under a certain ſize, or in any other manner contrary thereto, were not virtually repealed by the act 39th and 40th Geo. III. cap. 68, ſo far as relates to importations from Ireland; and inquiry having been made how this matter is underſtood in England, I have it in command to acquaint you, that it appears by a letter received from Mr. Tyron, ſolicitor of the cuſtoms at London, dated the 18th of October laſt, that ſpirits or other goods, imported from Ireland, are deemed ſubject to the ſame regulations, reſtrictions, penalties, and forfeitures, as to the ſhips and caſks, or packages, in which the ſame are imported, and the manner of importation, ſince the commencement of the ſaid act, as before the ame, &c.

Cuſtom houſe, Edinburgh, Nov. 20.

NOVEMBER 26.

By the Whim packet, from India, the important intelligence has been received of the death of the Nabob of the Carnatic. A letter dated the 4th of Auguſt, ſtates: 'This opportunity carries you intelligence of the Nabob's death, and that his adopted ſon has been ſet aſide, and a nephew of the old man elected in his ſtead. On finiſhing the ceremony of placing him on the Muſnud, the following general orders were iſſued:

'Fort St. George, July 31, 1801.

'G. O. BY GOVERNMENT.

'In conformity to a treaty this day concluded between the right honourable the governor in council, and his highneſs the nabob Azum ul Dowlah Bahauder, nabob of the Carnatic, by which the entire civil and military government of the Carnatic has been transferred for ever to the hands of the honourable company, orders have been tranſmitted to the civil officers appointed by the governor in council, to receive charge of the provinces of the Carnatic from the officers of the late government,

'His lordſhip in council is therefore pleaſed to order and direct all officers commanding diviſions, ſtations, garriſons and forts, to afford to the civil officers of government whatever military aid may be neceſſary to the eſtabliſhment of the authority of the company throughout the provinces of the Carnatic.

'By order of the right honourable the governor in council,

(Signed) 'J. WEBBE, ſecretary to the governor.'

## AMERICA.

ON Nov. 19, were received American papers up to the 20th of October, by which we have the ſatisfaction of being enabled to contradict, in the moſt poſitive terms, the report of the exiſtence of the yellow fever at New York, and to ſtate to our readers what really is at preſent, in point of health, the real ſituation of that city. In the early part of September, a fever of a malignant kind broke out, which does not appear to have at firſt given riſe to much alarm among the great bulk of the inhabitants. By degrees, however, the alarm ſpread, and vaſt numbers of merchants, as well as other deſcriptions of the people, believing that the fever was of that peſtilential and deſtructive nature from which they had formerly ſuffered ſuch dreadful ravages, quitted their homes, and left the town in a great meaſure deſerted. In this ſtate of things, the magiſtracy were extremely active in taking every pre-

caution againſt ſo deſtructive a malady, if it ſhould really turn out to be ſuch, while they ſpared no pains to get the true character of the diſeaſe aſcertained. The reſident phyſician, Dr. Tillary, has accordingly publiſhed ſeveral reports tending to quiet the general apprehenſion. His laſt report comes down to the 18th of October, and the reſult of his moſt diligent and painful enquiries is, that the diſeaſe is a fever of a malignant kind, but that it is not of the deſtructive and peſtilential character which the inhabitants had dreaded. He ſtates in his laſt report, that from the 17th of September to the 1ſt of October, twenty perſons had died of this fever; and from the 1ſt to the 18th, eighty, ſo that in this period (which was a ſickly month) the diſeaſe had carried off about one hundred individuals, from a place which comprehends a population of 60,000 ſouls. Theſe facts of themſelves are abundantly ſufficient to prove that the diſeaſe was not in the leaſt of the nature of the yellow fever, and the phyſician adds his own poſitive and unequivocal teſtimony. Theſe reports, and a favourable change in the weather, had, at the time the veſſel bringing theſe papers ſailed, produced the moſt favourable effects. The alarm had begun to ſubſide, the merchants and other inhabitants who had quitted the city were returning, and ſeveral of the ſtores which had been ſhut were again opened for carrying on buſineſs. Theſe papers mention the appearance of the ſame diſeaſe in other parts of America, but give no details of the numbers who had died.

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SHIPS captured from the ENEMY.

BAPTISTA, of eight guns, by the Milbrook.

The Sparrow, four guns, by the Thames.

La Carrere French frigate, of 40 guns, by the Phenix.

La Bravoure French frigate, of 46 guns, drove on ſhore and loſt, by the Minerve and Phenix.

The Succeſs frigate, recaptured by the Minerve and Pomone.

The Bull Dog ſloop, recaptured by the Mercury.

Sixty ſmall veſſels have been captured by admiral Ranier's ſquadron.

A hundred and thirty veſſels of various deſcriptions have been captured or deſtroyed by lord Keith's fleet in the Mediterranean.

## MARRIAGES.

WILLIAM F. Gardner, eſq. of Crutched-friars, to miſs Englehart, daughter of John Englehart, eſq. of Kew.

Edmund Garforth, eſq. lieutenant-col. of the Eaſt York militia, to miſs Catharine Aſſheton, youngeſt daughter of the late Rev. Richard Aſſheton, D. D. of Middleton, in Lancaſhire.

George Liddell, eſq. to miſs Dorothy Moore, daughter of the late Joſeph Moore, eſq. of Hull.

J. F. Steadman, eſq. of Bread-ſtreet-hill, to miſs Greening, daughter of Thomas Greening, eſq.

Frederick Colquhoun, eſq. to miſs J. Hanſon, of Mancheſter.

Right hon. Maurice Fitzgerald, to miſs Latouche.

George Ellis, eſq. M. P. to miſs Parker, daughter of ſir Peter Parker, bart.

## DEATHS.

ADMIRAL lord Hugh Seymour.

Henry Edgell, eſq. of Stonderwick-court.

John Ewart, eſq. of Biſh-court, Surry, aged 83.

Rev. Henry Goodricke, at Sutton, near York, aged 82.

S. T. Adey, eſq. M. P.

Sir William Hay, bart.

Hon. John Cochrane.

Jonathan Fearnſide, eſq. of the exchequer.

Lady Elphinſtone.

A. Allardyce, eſq. M. P.

Hon. captain Hamilton Lindſay.

T. Iſherwood, eſq. of Highgate, aged 80.

Dr. O'Reilly, catholic biſhop of Clogher.

Captain Ponſonby Moore, in Egypt.

## PROMOTIONS.

MARQUIS Cornwallis—plenipotentiary at the congreſs at Amiens.

Right hon. Charles Bragge—a privy-counſellor.

Prince Auguſtus Frederick—baron of Arklow, earl of Inverneſs, and duke of Suſſex.

Prince Adolphus Frederick—baron of Culloden, earl of Tipperary, and duke of Cambridge.

## NEW PUBLICATIONS.

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| D. | H. | Baro. | T.out | T.in. | H. | C. | Wind. | Weather, &c. Rain 1,5) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 7 | 30,36 | 50,5 | 59,5 | 67 | 0 | NNW 1 | |
| | 2 | 30,39 | 58 | 61 | 63 | 2 | WNW 1 | hazy. little fog at eve. clear |
| 2 | 7 | 30,59 | 51,5 | 59 | 69 | 3 | W 0 | |
| | 2 | 30,36 | 63,5 | 62 | 66 | 2 | SSW 1 | . clear eve |
| 3 | 7 | 30,25 | 51,5 | 60 | 72 | 3 | S 0 | foggy. fine |
| | 2 | 30,22 | 64 | 63 | 69 | 3 | W 1 | hazy. moift fog. thick upward |
| 4 | 7 | 30,11 | 55,5 | 61 | 73 | h | NE 1 | . little rain: fine |
| | 2 | 29,99 | 58 | 62 | 72 | 3 | W 0 | . chiefly cloudy and rainy |
| 5 | 7 | 29,82 | 53 | 60 | 75 | f | S 0 | drizzling. chiefly fine |
| | 2 | 29,80 | 59 | 61 | 70 | 3 | S 1 | . cloudy at times and little wet. fine night |
| 6 | 7 | 29,84 | 47 | 52,5 | 72 | 3 | W 1 | hazy |
| | 2 | 29,89 | 56,5 | 59 | 68 | 3 | N 1 | hazy. clear night |
| 7 | 7 | 29,92 | 42 | 55 | 72 | f | S 1 | not cloudy. fine |
| N | 2 | 29,85 | 56,5 | 57 | 68 | 3 | SW 1 | hazy |
| 8 | 7 | 29,61 | 53,5 | 57 | 71 | 3 | ESE 1 | . cloudy. rain at times |
| | 2 | 29,56 | 58 | 59 | 76 | 5 | SSE 1 | much rain at times |
| 9 | 7 | 22,74 | 51,5 | 57 | 73 | 3 | SSE 1 | |
| | 2 | 29,82 | 60 | 59,5 | 68 | 3 | SSE 2 | . clear night |
| 10 | 7 | 29,83 | 51 | 57 | 82 | f | ESE 0 | . fine |
| | 2 | 29,76 | 61,5 | 60 | 69 | 3 | E 1 | hazy. cloudy. much lightning thunder and |
| 11 | 7 | 29,69 | 56 | 60,5 | 80 | h | E 0 | little wet: not cloudy [rain at night |
| | 2 | 29,69 | 61 | 62 | 75 | h | NNW 1 | not cloudy. fine night |
| 12 | 7 | 29,92 | 48,5 | 58,5 | 72 | 2 | W 1 | foggy. fine |
| | 2 | 30,00 | 57,5 | 59,5 | 77 | 1 | W 1 | hazy |
| 13 | 7 | 30,09 | 41,5 | 57,5 | 76 | 3 | SW 1 | . cloudy and rain at times: chiefly fine |
| | 2 | 30,09 | 61,5 | 61 | 80 | 3 | SW 2 | . little rain at times |
| 14 | 7 | 30,14 | 60,5 | 61,5 | 84 | 4 | SSW 2 | . more cloudy: little wet |
| | 2 | 30,13 | 63 | 63,5 | 74 | 5 | SSW 3 | . little wet at times. leſs wind at eve |
| 15 | 7 | 30,11 | 56 | 61,5 | 75 | 5 | WSW 1 | . gentle rain |
| | 2 | 29,96 | 60 | 62 | 75 | h | SSW 2 | little rain. fine eve |
| 16 | 7 | 29,87 | 49 | 53,5 | 75 | 3 | W 1 | . hazy |
| | 2 | 29,87 | 58,5 | 60 | 72 | 3 | W 1 | hazy. rain. fine night |
| 17 | 7 | 29,81 | 52,5 | 58 | 74 | 4 | WSW 1 | . fine. thick upward: rain |
| | 2 | 29,67 | 58,5 | 61 | 77 | h | S 1 | rain at times. windy eve: leſs wind |
| 18 | 7 | 29,32 | 56 | 61 | 72 | 1 | WSW 3 | . more wind at times |
| | 2 | 29,19 | 57,5 | 61,5 | 67 | 4 | SSW 4 | . rain and more wind at times. fine calm night |
| 19 | 7 | 29,63 | 48 | 53,5 | 72 | 2 | WSW 1 | : chiefly cloudy and little rain |
| | 2 | 29,68 | 54 | 57,5 | 70 | 4 | N 1 | . little rain. fine eve. clear |
| 20 | 7 | 29,85 | 41,5 | 53,5 | 70 | 1 | W 1 | |
| | 2 | 29,89 | 50 | 54,5 | 66 | 1 | WNW 1 | |
| 21 | 7 | 29,63 | 41,5 | 52,5 | 72 | 4 | W 2 | . litle rain. fine. ſhower of ſmall hail |
| F | 2 | 29,60 | 41,5 | 53,5 | 67 | 2 | NNW 2 | . cloudy eve. fine |
| 22 | 7 | 29,66 | 36,5 | 48 | 66 | 1 | WNW 1 | : thick upward. drizzling |
| | 2 | 29,72 | 42 | 50,5 | 72 | h | WNW 1 | little rain at times. fine night |
| 23 | 7 | 30,12 | 46,5 | 52 | 72 | 3 | N 2 | . cloudy. fine |
| | 2 | 30,21 | 52,5 | 50,5 | 69 | 2 | NE 1 | . clear night |
| 24 | 7 | 30,30 | 41,5 | 52 | 70 | 1 | N 1 | hazy |
| | 2 | 30,26 | 50 | 52,5 | 66 | 1 | N 1 | hazy |
| 25 | 7 | 30,26 | 42,5 | 51,5 | 74 | 1 | N 1 | : cloudy |
| | 2 | 30,26 | 52,5 | 54 | 72 | 5 | N 1 | little wet. leſs cloudy night |
| 26 | 7 | 30,44 | 48,5 | 53,5 | 72 | 3 | N 1 | . more cloudy |
| | 2 | 30,48 | 55 | 55 | 72 | 4 | N 1 | . thick upward |
| 27 | 7 | 30,48 | 48,5 | 55 | 72 | 2 | WNW 1 | |
| | 2 | 30,38 | 54,5 | 56 | 69 | 3 | W 1 | hazy. cloudy. rain at night |
| 28 | 7 | 30,23 | 48,5 | 55 | 71 | 3 | W 1 | hazy |
| | 2 | 30,30 | 50 | 55 | 64 | 1 | NNW 1 | hazy |
| 29 | 7 | 30,34 | 41,5 | 50 | 64 | 4 | W 1 | . little rain |
| | 2 | 30,23 | 53,5 | 53,5 | 73 | 5 | SW 2 | . little rain. calm eve |
| 30 | 7 | 30,12 | 54 | 56 | 74 | 3 | WSW 2 | : cloudy and little wet |
| | 2 | 30,06 | 59 | 58,5 | 73 | 5 | SW 3 | . drizzly at times |
| 31 | 7 | 30,13 | 57 | 59 | 77 | 4 | SW 2 | . little wet but leſs cloudy at times |
| | 2 | 30,11 | 61,5 | 61 | 71 | 4 | WSW 2 | . drizzly night: chiefly fine |

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